

THE TEACHING
OF
SOCIAL SCIENCES
IN
INDIA
(1947-67)

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by

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PREFACE

THIS pamphlet has been compiled in order to provide general information and a guide for social scientists and students who wish to teach or study at Indian universities and institutions specializing in this field.

This guide book shows which of the important universities and research institutions of this large and complex country devote their efforts to the varying aspects of problems dealt with by the main disciplines of the social sciences. It also shows in which institutional framework the professor or student from abroad may expect new methods and techniques to be tried out under rapidly changing conditions.

In the period 1950-52 the international professional organizations in the social sciences (the International Economics Association, International Sociological Association, International Political Science Association, International Studies Conference and International Committee of Comparative Law) worked to survey by disciplines the teaching of the social sciences in eight countries. India was included in this survey from the beginning, as one of the most important countries in Asia.

The reports written on the different disciplines were discussed in September 1952 by an international expert meeting, which reached a series of conclusions and made recommendations for the development and improvement of the teaching of the social sciences.

The reports were then revised and published during the period 1953-54.¹ The Department of Social Sciences of Unesco considered that this important material should also be made to serve in its national context as an outline for visiting foreign social scientists. Unesco therefore published during the same period a pamphlet on the teaching of the social sciences in each of three countries, France, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. The pamphlet on the teaching of the social sciences in India is thus the fourth in the series of national booklets. Further publications of the same nature on the U.S.S.R. and Spain are planned.

¹ *The University Teaching of the Social Sciences: Political Science, The University Teaching of the Social Sciences: International Relations, The University Teaching of the Social Sciences: Economics, The University Teaching of the Social Sciences: Law, The University Teaching of the Social Sciences: Sociology, Social Psychology and Cultural Anthropology.*

Whereas national reports were published in an abridged and fully edited form in the booklets on the main disciplines, the national pamphlets provide the texts in extenso, practically without editorial changes.

Unesco's survey on the university teaching of the social sciences, of which this booklet forms part, was followed in 1954 by regional activities. As it was recognized that international recommendations in the field of university education necessarily remained general and more or less theoretical, and that actual development and improvement depended entirely upon action on the national level, Unesco endeavoured to provide a link between the international and the national study of the problem by organizing regional round table meetings.

In February 1954, the Organization arranged for a meeting of governmental delegates and eminent university professors from the following Asian countries: Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Malaya and Singapore, Pakistan and Thailand. The proceedings and principal papers of this meeting were published under the title Round table Conference on the Teaching of the Social Sciences in South Asia by the Unesco South Asia Science Co-operation Office in Autumn 1954. The present booklet deals with the Indian situation only, but it should be regarded as complementary to the discussions at the above round table.

As it is frequently pointed out in the different chapters of this booklet, one of the most interesting aspects of present social science teaching in South Asia is the integration of modern scientific investigation as developed in several Western countries with the genuine Eastern traditions of India. In this country, as in most other parts of the world, the strongest tradition exists in the field of economics, whereas the youngest of the sciences is probably social psychology. Perhaps the most striking contribution of the best Indian social scientists in all fields, whether of economics, sociology, social psychology, social anthropology, political science, international relations or legal education, is that the country since independence has made a unique effort to modernize and develop the social field. All the social sciences therefore have an opportunity to contribute towards action in both public and private spheres and, simultaneously, it is possible to apply national as well as foreign ideas, theories, methods and techniques in the reality of twentieth century Asia.

INTRODUCTION TO PART II

THE UNESCO has rendered meritorious service to the cause of education by bringing out a series of books surveying the teaching of various disciplines included in the social sciences. It is only when an integrated picture of the teaching in various countries is in view that reforms can be thought of by incorporating new techniques—which others have followed and eliminating dead wood. Nations all over the world are taking long and rapid strides and are increasingly adopting scientific techniques in the study of social sciences. These are being developed by educationists who are in the fore in the queue of research and the teaching is no longer an art only but has become a science also. It is by exposing the teaching to the microscopic lens of enquiry that flaws are readily perceptible. And only a comparative survey can reveal the modern scientific investigations as developed in some countries, which can be incorporated in countries lacking in these to make their teaching more comprehensive, complete and fruitful.

With this aim in view the UNESCO has brought out books in the university teaching of the social science series, special reports on political science, economics, international relations, law, sociology, social psychology, cultural anthropology, industrial sociology, criminology, statistics, demography, public administration, business administration, etc., but in all these overall surveys, India has received only a bird's eye-view.

This volume—which deals exclusively with the teaching of social sciences in India—has had naturally a fuller treatment, because it covers exclusively only one country, *i.e.*, India, and the Part I of this volume is by authors each eminent in his own field. But as this was published more than a decade back—it could give a picture of only 'what was' and not of 'what is'. For example, the number of students receiving higher education has more than doubled. The number of universities, colleges, teachers have also shown correspondingly marked increase bringing in new problems including those of admissions, qualified teachers, housing the institutions, hostels and residential halls for students etc. Some new developments are medium of instruction, inflation, and the unsatisfactory financial position of the government—which are peculiar to this country and have their roots in the economic and political conditions. All these have a general but close bearing on teaching. The more intimately connected problems—which are inter linked with teaching, such as examinations

nt courses of studies—remain as they were. The third important factor is that more and more subjects are emerging and spreading out as full fledged disciplines and while in the first part discussion was confined to eight disciplines, the treatment has been extended to twenty, in the second part.

All this necessitated supplementing the report published earlier. The latest figures available have been now furnished. Detailed courses of studies for the various disciplines and the books prescribed have as far as possible been given to present as complete a picture as possible. *The readers would find in this single volume up to date information till the end of 1967 and all that they need to look up for in regard to the teaching of social sciences in India and in all humility it is claimed that no single book published elsewhere covers such wide ground or gives such extensive and up to date figures. Readers seeking the latest and detailed information on teaching of social sciences in Indian universities may refer to this volume with pleasant anticipations which, we hope, will be amply fulfilled.*

31st December, 1967

GOPESII KUMAR OJHA

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INTRODUCTION

HIGHER EDUCATION IN INDIA AND THE STUDY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

By Humayun Kabir¹

In India, as in most other countries, the study of the social sciences has not until recently been a distinct and separate discipline. In fact the specialized study of the different sciences is everywhere a comparatively new development. In ancient days, education was the prerogative of a small minority, but the members of this privileged group took all knowledge to be their province and made no distinction between different fields of study. That they could attempt such a task was due to two factors. The body of available knowledge was small compared to what it is today, books were few, and oral knowledge largely undifferentiated. Further, practically all fields of knowledge were included in the compendious term *philosophy*. This covered not only knowledge about man but also knowledge of the external world. In a word, the study of philosophy was the study of all that is comprised in the humanities and metaphysics in all their branches, as also what we today regard as the natural sciences.

The process of differentiation of knowledge began with the separation of the natural sciences. Long known as natural philosophy the name is a reminder of the old affiliation with the humanities. Natural philosophy in course of time developed into various physical and biological sciences. The disciplines which today comprise the social sciences could not break away so easily. It was easy to apply the methods of scientific analysis to objects of external nature. It was not so easy to apply them to the diverse and complex aspects of human nature. In consequence the social sciences continued to be a part of philosophy long after the natural sciences had become independent and separate fields of study. Economics and politics were for long regarded as branches of ethics, while psychology and anthropology were 50 years ago looked upon as merely special applications of philosophical principles. It is only since the beginning of the present century that these disciplines have asserted a claim to independent status and even today that status is not always freely recognized.

If the study of the social sciences as a separate discipline is a new phenomenon, the concept of higher, as opposed to elementary and secondary education is also a comparatively recent

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growth. As opposed to the minority who studied as long as they would or could, the majority were not concerned with the pursuit of knowledge as such. They were content to acquire the skills needed for making a living. Neither they nor society at large regarded the acquisition of such skills as education. Rather it was looked upon as training which prepared the individual for his future career.

The relation of education to training is a fit subject for debate. Without raising any controversy, it may be said that training depends more on the routine absorption of techniques than on understanding the principles underlying them. So long as such training remains divorced from education, there is little scope for new developments. Craftsmen may repeat old techniques and acquire near perfection in them but there can be no progress in any real sense. This is one reason why many of the arts and crafts in eastern countries have remained stationary through the centuries. This was also largely true of Western countries till the beginning of the seventeenth century. About that time, the attitude of the West changed and a scientific outlook replaced the old adherence to tradition and routine. It also marked the beginning of Western ascendancy in the world.

The division of education into elementary, secondary and higher education is largely the result of the growth of political democracy and industrialization. So long as political power was confined to a small minority, provision of education for all was not recognized as an obligation of the State or the community. As democracy developed, newer strata of society began to share in political power. The extension of the franchise was one expression of the growth of democracy and demanded an expansion of educational facilities. It was inevitable that at the initial stages this extension should be confined to the lower ranges of education. Nevertheless, as early as 1819, Thomas Jefferson in founding the University of Virginia declared that it was his hope 'to avail the State of those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which perish without use, if not sought for and cultivated'. It is significant that the extension of higher education to all people should take place in the country which was the first to accept political democracy as its creed and universal general education as its policy.

Apart from the needs of politics, industrialization also played an important role in extending the facilities of education to all social levels. The use of machines required from the operatives at least the power to read and write and do simple arithmetic. As the use of machines grew, so did the need for the spread of literacy. The spread of education has a direct relation to the degree of mechanization attained by society. Growing industrialization thus led to growing provision of education for all. Universal compulsory free elementary education soon became an accepted purpose of the State.

There was no separate provision for the study of the social sciences in India until recently. The question of such studies at higher levels simply did not arise. Nevertheless, India has for centuries, if not for millenniums, had a tradition of linking study with life. There may have been no formal study of the social sciences but the conduct of man, both as an individual and a member of society, has been a matter of concern from the earliest times. This has expressed itself in diverse ways. Students who were engaged in the study of abstruse metaphysics were also expected to study the application of metaphysical principles to problems of practical life. Indian philosophy did not recognize any absolute distinction between theory and practice. In fact philosophy in the Indian conception is not a purely intellectual discipline as with certain Western types, but a practical way of life. The divergence between philosophy and life is a comparatively recent development even in the West and is perhaps due to the impact of the growth of science. This led to an increasing interest in epistemology and emphasis on abstract theory. Indian philosophy, except for some ultra logical schools, has always been concerned with individual and social conduct and the self realization of man.

This concern with the relation of the individual to society helps to explain why the Indian recognized no sharp distinction between religion, law and morality. These are derived from what, for want of a better name, may be called a spiritual outlook, but this spirituality is not necessarily an other worldly affair. The integration of law, religion and morality also expresses itself in the economic and political code prescribed for the individual. The emphasis on community life, both during tutelage and in after life, also brings out the same point. Education in India was thus essentially a community activity where pupils and teachers lived together, shared a common life and sought knowledge as a common good.

This deep sense of the unity of the community and the individual is evident in the new pattern of education India is seeking to evolve today. The urge towards a unity is apparent in the thought of India's most creative thinkers Tagore and Gandhi, and is to be clearly observed at all stages of education. It has been decided that basic education will be the pattern for elementary education throughout the country. The essence of basic education lies in the recognition of the unity of study and life. Basic education emphasizes the crafts because such crafts are essential to human survival. The school itself is envisaged as an epitome of the community. All school activities seek to reflect the multifarious activities of society. The programme of education for children is thus essentially an anticipation of their future activity as adult members of the community.

The same principle of unity of life and study is operative in the new conception of secondary education which is taking

shape in India Life has many facets and hence the new conception of secondary education finds its most significant expression in the multi-purpose school These are intended not only to cater to the various interests, aptitudes and abilities of the adolescent, but also to reflect the many sided activities of adult society All such activities are to be integrated in one school to reflect the recognition that they are equally important for social survival, and in order to remove the stigma which often in the past has attached to physical or manual labour Social studies, including the study of history, geography and simple civics and economics, are an integral part of the proposed secondary school curriculum In a sense, then, this new conception has made specific provision for the study of the social sciences at the secondary stage

In the stage of higher education also, this social approach is evident in the attempt to formulate a new general course of liberal education This is intended to train the individual for the various responsibilities which citizenship of a democracy entails The importance of social awareness is seen not only in the attempt to introduce general courses of liberal education but perhaps still more in the attempt to provide students of science and technology with knowledge of social issues and principles In the two most highly developed institutions of scientific and technological study in the country—the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur and the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore—provision has been made for the study of the humanities as well as the social sciences by all students In addition, special courses concerned with the administration and management of men are being introduced to provide executives in different fields with the opportunity of acquiring the necessary experience and skill in their respective spheres Social studies have also been made an integral part of the training of officers for the armed forces

Awareness of social relations has thus been a characteristic of Indian society throughout its history That is why, even without a formal study of the social sciences, Indian education has sought to understand the nature of the society in which men live as well as their basic needs their economic arrangements and their political forms Nevertheless, there are at least three special reasons why a more systematic study of the social sciences is necessary in contemporary India

The first of these arises out of the existence in India of three systems of education which have flowed in parallel streams In almost all the Western countries education has a general unity in spite of the great diversities which particular institutions or disciplines may exhibit The climate of intellectual life in the West is dominated by the influence of the natural sciences It has affected even regions which consciously seek to oppose

science Western education has its own internal divisions but because of its roots in Hellenic and Hebraic traditions and because of the pervasive influence of science such differences are not comparable with the divisions which prevail in India

Modern India has three parallel systems of education which derive from ancient India, medieval India and the impact of the West After an initial phase of free philosophical inquiry, ancient Indian education became academic, literary and largely traditional It developed an authoritarian temper, which was perhaps inevitable in a society where only a minority had access to learning Some fraction of their knowledge reached the masses through legends and stories, the discourses of itinerant saints and preachings of religious teachers It was however only a fraction of what the initiate knew Society thus developed a bipolarity in which knowledge and wisdom were concentrated in a small minority at one pole while at the other pole the vast majority remained steeped in ignorance and superstition It is not surprising that such a society should soon become dogmatic, inelastic and subject to the iron law of tradition and custom

Medieval Indian education was developed by the Moslem rulers who were influenced by the traditions of Arabia and Persia Early Islam was revolutionary and democratic, and in consequence this new system was democratic in theory In practice, it also was confined to a small section of the people There were no barriers based on birth but the duration of the course was so long and the syllabus so difficult as to dissuade all except only a handful of devoted pupils Like ancient Indian education, this system also became authoritarian and dogmatic after a brief early phase of liberal free thought What was more unfortunate was that it developed independently of the indigenous Indian system If the two systems had established points of contact, their distinct dogmatisms may have led each to modify its own dogmas, but they continued like parallel lines that never meet One was based on the ancient Indian tradition with Sanskrit as its vehicle the other on Saracenic ideals through the medium of Arabic and Persian

The advent of the British brought a powerful challenge to these systems from a new source but did not lead to a unification of Indian education On the contrary it added a third system to the existing two English education was in theory and also increasingly in practice open to all Its emphasis on science and experiment brought a new element into Indian life The establishment of universities as we know them today encouraged the growth of a critical spirit and led to a questioning of old values There was however no attempt to develop a system of education in which the heritage of Indian, Saracenic and European knowledge could be combined

Human beings living in the same country cannot however remain completely aloof Quite early in the middle ages, Hindus and Moslems established points of contact at many levels In

the courts and the cities, patterns of common behaviour grew out of the desire of worldly advancement. In the villages, common beliefs and customs developed through the teaching of the reformers, religious teachers and poets. Some of the learning of the scholars in each system also percolated to the masses, but in the processes it was often changed beyond recognition. After the advent of the British, new points of contact were established as in the middle ages. Old traditions and customs were disturbed by the impact of Western thought but as before, a *modus vivendi* rather than an intellectual synthesis was established.

These approximations in belief and conduct were of great value in affairs of daily life. One may even describe such approximation as a synthesis, but it was a synthesis on the level of practice, emotion and intuition. Without the support of critical and careful thought, it shared the weakness common to all instinctive attitudes: it could hold only so long as it was not challenged by a contrary instinct. Based on the urges derived from feelings and emotions, the synthesis has also lacked the solidity which intellectual articulation can alone give.

The failure to achieve a common system of national education is one symptom of the lack of intellectual synthesis. Another is the existence side by side of parallel societies and cultures. In fact, the lack of intellectual integration has led to a growth of compartmentalism even within the individual mind. A man who accepts Western science intellectually is steeped emotionally in traditions of ancient and medieval India. The latest fashions of thought exist side by side with a primitive mode of behaviour and feeling. This gives a special urgency to the study of social sciences in contemporary India. Such study may well be the first step in an attempt at intellectual integration and consolidation of the diverse elements that together constitute the culture of India.

A second factor which demands greater attention for the study of the social sciences in contemporary India is the necessity of achieving in decades what the Western world has taken centuries to accomplish. The industrialization of the West was spread over at least three to four centuries. America may seem to be an exception as it has a history of only three or four hundred years. The exception is only apparent, for America is essentially a projection of European society in the western hemisphere. Besides, the American experiment took place on an almost clean slate. The older inhabitants of America were either wiped out or absorbed in the new influx of peoples from Europe. American social forms and institutions are therefore basically European forms and institutions as they developed in a freer and larger background.

In India, on the other hand, the old social forms have continued and still have considerable vitality. While the beginning of industrialization in India can be traced back to about a

hundred years ago, the peculiar political and economic situation of India caused the old traditional forms of life to continue almost unchanged till recently. The first world war no doubt gave an impetus to the growth of modern industries, but it is only with the outbreak of the second world war that the full impact of modern industrialization was felt by India. The processes which were initiated then have continued with increasing force and with a more conscious purpose in independent India. There are no doubt some sections of the people who are opposed to change and seek to cling to the old pattern of life. They are however fighting a losing battle and it may truly be said that after the attainment of independence, the process of modernizing the country has been accepted as a deliberate policy of the nation. India is today passing through a transformation of a primarily agricultural rural community into a new society where industry and modern modes of life will take an increasing share. Old social institutions have decayed or are in a process of fast change. In such a situation, it is essential that there must be far greater emphasis on the study of the various forces and factors which govern social developments. This has given a new urgency to the study of the social sciences in contemporary India.

India's decision to carry out vast changes in her social, economic and cultural life by democratic means is the third reason why special attention must be given to the study of the social sciences. The changes which are taking place in India today are revolutionary, but they are by and large being brought about with the consent and co-operation of the people. Social changes in democratic societies have generally been unconscious and unplanned. They have happened rather than been the result of deliberate action. In totalitarian societies on the other hand the wishes of the people have hardly been taken into account. India is seeking to plan her future consciously and deliberately, and at the same time with the knowledge and participation of her people. Even the decision that the future pattern of Indian society will be based on the ideal of social justice and equal opportunity for all is to be implemented through democratic planning on a vast scale.

Since these plans will affect every aspect of national life and change the quality and texture of the experience of individuals in the remotest corners of India, the Indian Government decided to set up a central planning commission to study the problems in all their aspects in an objective and dispassionate manner and suggest methods of solution. Economic development is bound to have its impact on agriculture and industry and influence the structure and development of village communities. Increasing use of the machine will give rise to new problems of employment and manpower and affect both rural and urban self-government. The Planning Commission has

not show the same spectacular progress but neither have they been altogether neglected. A number of institutions for the study of different aspects of Indology have been established in the course of the last four or five years. A new development is the establishment of specialized institutes for the study of sociological problems of various types. A proposal is now under consideration for the establishment of an international social sciences research centre sponsored jointly by the Government of India and Unesco.¹

At least a passing reference must be made to the schools of social work that have been established as independent institutions or under the aegis of a university. The first of these was established in Bombay some two decades ago to serve as a training centre for social and labour welfare work in slums and industrial areas. It was soon felt that knowledge of social theories and of the principles of welfare work was indispensable if the trainees were to cope adequately with the problems they had to face. This led to an increasing emphasis on the academic study of social welfare and some feared that the practical training might suffer in consequence. These fears have proved unjustified and these institutions are trying to hold the balance between theory and practice. The demand for such training has increased and there are today over half a dozen institutions as compared with only one 10 years ago.

A very brief report on the rise in the number of students in universities and comparable institutions—and the rise is continuing at an accelerated pace—also helps to explain why it is so difficult to give a satisfactory and accurate account of higher education in India. Before 1947, the total number of such students was less than 250 000. Today it is about half a million. In technical and professional institutions, the number has almost trebled, rising from less than 50 000 to almost 125 000 by 1954. The annual output of graduates rose from less than 30 000 in 1947 to well over 50 000 in 1953. The number of graduates in arts and sciences has been doubled. A substantial proportion of this increase is due to the increasing emphasis on the study of economics, politics and other allied fields.

Another reason why any account of higher education in India tends to become out of date almost before it can be printed

1 Steps have been taken in 1950 for the establishment in South Asia of the International Research Centre on Social Problems of Industrialization. A Consultative Committee met in New Delhi in September 1955 with the participation of delegates from 10 countries of the region (Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and the Malaya-British Borneo Association Group) and international organizations such as United Nations Organization, International Labour Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization, World Health Organization.

This Committee has agreed to the propositions of the Unesco Secretariat in view of the creation of this Centre in Calcutta in January 1956.

is to be found in the changes that are taking place in the structure and organization of higher education. One of the reports in this study gives an analysis of the present position in the universities. At present many of them offer a two year intermediate course followed by a two-year degree course to students who have taken the matriculation or an equivalent examination. A majority of the pupils take this examination at 15 or 16 and are often physically, intellectually and emotionally unprepared for a proper university course. The intermediate stage has, therefore, tended to be a continuation of the school rather than the beginning of university education. The methods followed at this stage have however approximated to those appropriate to colleges. Most educationists have long felt unhappy over this situation but till very recently, there seemed no way of reaching a satisfactory solution. At the beginning of 1955, it was however agreed that the intermediate course should gradually disappear. Of the two years covered by this stage, one should be added to the school and the other merged in the B.A. course. The school leaving age will be raised to 17 plus, so that the students who come to the university will be more mature in every way.

New universities and specialized institutions are being established almost every year. Changes are being made in the duration and structure of the courses and new courses are being instituted in the old universities. To take only one or two random examples till recently, the study of psychology was merely a part of the general course in philosophy. A few decades ago, the University of Calcutta started a separate course in experimental psychology. Now many universities have courses in both experimental and social psychology as independent subjects of study. In fact, psychology has in recent years become so popular that departments of psychology have now been set up in almost all the universities. In some cases, independent institutes of psychology have also been established in important industrial centres.

The study of population trends is also attracting increasing attention while geography is gradually attaining the status of a major subject. Domestic science and home economics were almost unknown subjects a decade ago but since 1947 the facilities for their study have been considerably expanded. There is in fact a new awareness of the value of the study of the social sciences for indicating methods of dealing with some of the most difficult and intricate social problems of the day. Reference has been made earlier to the study of tensions instituted in co-operation with Unesco. This has been followed by a number of studies sponsored in various universities by the Government of India and dealing with a wide variety of social problems affecting economic, political, communal, linguistic and other relations among the different sections of the Indian people. A small Steering Committee has been set up by the National Commission.

for Unesco to co ordinate the various schemes and give financial assistance and advice to the teams conducting them.

Under the Indian constitution education is essentially a State responsibility. The Central Government has however a special responsibility for the co ordination of facilities and the determination of standards in all institutions for higher education or research. It is also required to provide for the needs of the four central universities and any other institution which may be declared by Parliament to be an institution of national importance. With the enormous increase in the number of institutions and students, it was inevitable that serious problems of co-ordination of facilities and maintenance of standards should arise. The criticism has sometimes been made that standards of both teachers and students have fallen, but probably the best in both categories are as good as ever. The increase in numbers has, however, meant some deterioration in the average quality, specially marked among the teachers, with serious repercussions among students.

Since the attainment of independence, the attractions of other types of employment have been increasingly drawing away some of the ablest men and women from the teaching profession. Nor is it easy to devise measures to check this drift, as countries of the Western world have also realized. Education cannot in the existing circumstances compete with administration or industry in offering emoluments or prospects of advancement to the able and ambitious youth. Nevertheless something must be done if the standard of knowledge and efficiency is not to suffer progressive deterioration. At the least, measures must be taken to provide for uniform development in all fields of study and ensure that the limited resources are used to the best possible effect. With these ends in view, the Government of India has established the University Grants Commission and charged it with the responsibility of co ordinating facilities and maintaining standards. The Commission will act in an advisory capacity but, since it will include eminent educationists, with specialists as advisory staff, it is expected that the advice of the Commission will lead to a definite improvement in the standard of university education. Large funds have also been placed at its disposal so that it can follow up its advice with the financial support needed to carry out the necessary measures of reform and reorganization.

Special mention may also be made of a Department of Anthropology which is maintained by the Government of India as a specialized research department. Some of its work in the field of physical anthropology has won world-wide recognition. In recent years, the emphasis has been shifting to study and research in social anthropology. Many problems of social adjustment arising out of the contacts between primitive peoples of hills and forests and the more sophisticated peoples of the plains have been and are being investigated. A special field of interest is

the impact of modern ways of life on the habits of simple aboriginal people. Changes in food, habits, types of cultivation, social and personal laws and fertility and mortality rates are also being studied in different parts of the land. The Department has not however confined its attention to primitive peoples. The effects of industrialization on a primarily agricultural community also offer rich fields of research. Attempts are also being made to establish closer relations with the universities. In order to give postgraduate students of anthropology the opportunity of field training, special scholarships and training schemes have been instituted. Every effort is being made to undertake a systematic and scientific study of the many human problems which arise in such a context.

Even in ancient times we find that philosophers, politicians and social thinkers have undertaken detailed and at times brilliant studies of how men behave as individuals and as members of groups. However, the systematic and scientific study of social problems is a comparatively recent growth. To a large extent, the development of the social sciences is due to the growth of the natural sciences. As advances in the knowledge of external nature gave man increasing power and increasing self confidence, it was inevitable that he should start thinking of applying the same technique to the study of his own inner being. Further, the conquests of science led to startling changes in the organization of human society. As the scale of production increased, new problems of urban life arose. As different peoples were brought into contact, they started affecting one another in diverse ways. The result was a new interest in social sciences in order to find the solution to new and urgent social problems. European philosophy since the seventeenth century is the record of one attempt after another to apply the methods of science to the problems of human behaviour, even in respect of man's quest for knowledge and morality. That these attempts did not fully succeed did not deter him. Nor was he daunted by the fact that too rigorous an application of the scientific method to human problems led to what one may, following Kant, call the antinomies. Throughout the eighteenth and the nineteenth centuries and increasingly during the present century, man has persisted in his endeavour to explain human nature in terms of the laws of science. The phenomenal development of the social sciences in the last hundred years is one result of his stupendous effort to that end.

The experience of the last two or three centuries however suggests that a distinction has to be drawn between the natural and the social sciences. There must of course be increasing efforts to understand individuals and societies. Every accession of knowledge is also an accession of power. This is equally true of natural and of social sciences. Also science as such is largely neutral, but here the analogy between the natural and the social

sciences tends to break down. The natural sciences jointly and severally give us basic information and knowledge about the laws of nature. These laws are impersonal and, pending new discoveries, immutable. Social sciences give us basic information and knowledge about man in society, but the laws we derive from them are neither impersonal nor immutable. Where man is the object of his own study—as is the case in all the social sciences—we have to take into consideration not only what *is* but what he thinks *ought* to be. Social sciences seek to tell us how to control human beings just as natural sciences tell us how to control nature. There is however the significant difference that in the case of human beings, the conception of values disturbs the operation of what may be regarded as natural law. Values are not natural phenomena but the incursion of the normative into the field of the actual.

The social sciences either directly or in an indirect manner deal with human welfare. Human welfare depends not merely on knowledge but on the ideals which human beings set before themselves. These ideals use both natural and social sciences as instruments but cannot themselves be explained in merely scientific terms. With increasing knowledge—whether of things or of men—the need for ideals becomes greater. When the weapons of destruction were few and limited in power, there was not the same terrifying urgency for peace as today. When our knowledge of the motives and impulses of human behaviour was limited, there was not the same need to exercise wisdom and restraint in the use of psychological methods. Today, the natural sciences have placed in the hands of man weapons which can destroy the physical world. Similarly, advanced psychological knowledge has given him the capacity to influence human conduct in a manner which is terrifying. Science, whether natural or social, can give us instruments but not the norms for the right use of these instruments. Increase in knowledge and power without corresponding increase in moral control may be the prelude to universal destruction.

The predicament in which the world finds itself today can lead to only one conclusion. It is not enough to study economics, political science, sociology, social anthropology, social psychology and other types of social sciences. There must side by side be a deeper understanding of the values which have till now operated to raise man from the state of savagery to his present stage of development. The study and realization of these values is necessary to carry him further in his progress towards civilization. We may not like to admit it but the fact is that except in the case of rare individuals man is not yet fully civilized. Perhaps most communities, as communities, are even less developed than the individuals who constitute them. Eradication of the elements of savagery in individuals and societies demands a reorientation of education in which there is a proper balance between the study of the natural sciences, the social sciences and the philosophy of values.

THE STRUCTURE OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

By S. Mathai

Historical Background

The present educational system in India is of comparatively recent origin, having its beginnings in the early years of British rule in India, about a hundred years ago, when schools and colleges teaching English and other subjects through the medium of English came into existence. The first universities in India—those of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras—were established in 1857. By that time a number of other educational institutions had come into being, many of them set up by Christian missionaries, and others by the government. These provided instruction in English language and literature and in some of the modern sciences. The conflict that had arisen in the first decade of the nineteenth century between the advocates of Western learning and the champions of oriental education was more or less finally resolved in favour of the former by 1835, when it was laid down, under the influence of Macaulay, that government funds available for education were to be devoted mainly to support schools and colleges which imparted Western learning through the English language.

The universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were set up to co-ordinate the work of the various colleges scattered all over the country, to examine the students in them and to award degrees to the successful ones. The model on which these universities were incorporated was the University of London, then a new institution. Although the University of London itself has undergone profound changes during the last 100 years, the pattern of the first Indian universities still remains more or less what it was at the beginning, in spite of certain important modifications that have been made in the course of the years.

Until the first years of the twentieth century, India had five universities: the universities of the Punjab (Lahore) and of Allahabad having been founded in 1882 and 1887 respectively. These universities affiliated the colleges in their respective regions, conducted examinations leading to various degrees and awarded degrees.

Several new universities were established in the first quarter of the twentieth century, some of these incorporating new ideas of university organization put forward by different University Commissions appointed by the government. Some of them were patterned on the more recent British universities. They were 'unitary' universities in the sense that their jurisdiction was confined to a small area and that they undertook to teach as well as

to examine students under their care, providing residential accommodation for most of the students. But the economic and social circumstances of the country necessitated the continuance of the affiliating universities. A small residential university is expensive but it is possible to set up a college in a small town without much initial outlay of money, and students attending classes as day-scholars can receive a college education very cheaply.

The Universities

Today there are 31 full fledged universities in India. These are, in order of foundation Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, 1857, Allahabad, 1887, Banaras Hindu, Mysore, 1916, Patna, 1917, Osmania, 1918, Aligarh Muslim, Lucknow, 1920, Delhi, 1922, Nagpur, 1923, Andhra, 1926, Agra, 1927, Annamalai, 1929, Travancore, 1937, Utkal, 1943, Saugor 1946, Rajputana, Punjab, 1947, Gauhati, Roorkee, Poona, Jammu and Kashmir, 1948, Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, 1949, Karnatak, Gujarat, 1950, *Visva Bharati*, *Shree-mati Nathubai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University*, 1951, Bihar, 1952, Shri Venkateswara 1954.

Of these the University of Jammu and Kashmir, established in 1948, affiliates the colleges in the state of Jammu and Kashmir. The colleges were formerly affiliated to the University of the Punjab (Lahore), political changes connected with the partition of India in 1947 necessitated the creation of a separate university in Jammu and Kashmir. For similar reasons the colleges in the Indian portion of the Punjab were affiliated to a new university, the Punjab University. *Visva Bharati*, which has recently (1951) been given a Charter by the Government of India, was founded as an international university by the poet Rabindra nath Tagore. It has certain distinctive characteristics of its own and is an attempt to develop a basis on which the cultures of the East and West may meet in common fellowship'. The *Shree-mati Nathubai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University* (usually known as 'Women's University') was founded in 1916 to provide an education 'specially suited to the needs and requirements of women. The university received a Charter from the Government of Bombay and began to function as a statutory university in 1951.

Of the other 27 universities Agra is a purely affiliating body having no teaching functions of its own. It has under its jurisdiction some 50 colleges scattered over the states of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Bharat, it was created in 1927 to relieve the University of Allahabad of affiliating functions and to enable the latter to function as a unitary teaching university. So too the new University of Bihar, with headquarters at Patna, has since 1952 relieved the University of Patna of its affiliating functions and allowed it to function as a university confined to the city of Patna, federating the colleges in that city into a compact teaching

organization somewhat in the manner of Oxford or Cambridge. The universities of Banaras, Aligarh, Lucknow and Annamalai are unitary residential teaching universities. The University of Delhi is of the federative kind, *i.e.* it federates into a teaching organisation a number of autonomous constituent colleges in the city of Delhi. Roorkee University, which grew out of the Thomason Engineering College, is unique in that it is an engineering university and has no other faculties. The other universities are mainly affiliating ones, but have also important teaching functions, especially in the fields of postgraduate and professional education and research.

Another institution that has university standing is Serampore College (near Calcutta), founded in 1818 by European missionaries. It received in 1827 a Royal Charter from King Frederick VI of Denmark (to whom Serampore then belonged), confirmed by the British Government in 1845. But the Charter was not utilized till 1915 when degrees in divinity were granted for the first time. The position now is that in the faculties of arts and science Serampore College is affiliated to Calcutta University, but in the faculty of theology the college functions as an independent university.

Technical and Research Institutes

Apart from the universities, there are in India a large number of technical and research institutes. Chief among these are Ahmedabad Textile Association's Research Laboratory, Atrra, All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute Poona (1947), Birbal Sahani Institute of Paleobotany, Lucknow (1947), Bose Research Institute, Calcutta (1917), Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee (1953), Central Drug Research Institute, Lucknow (1951), Central Electro Chemical Research Institute, Karaikudi (1953), Central Electronics Engineering Research Institute, Pilani (1953), Central Food and Technological Research Institute, Mysore (1948), Central Fuel Research Institute, Jealgora, Bihar, Central Glass and Ceramic Research Institute, Calcutta (1950), Central Leather Research Institute, Madras (1953), Central Marine Research Station, Mandapam, Central Research Laboratories for Scientific and Industrial Research Hyderabad (1944), Central Road Research Institute, Delhi (1950), Central Salt Research Station, Bhavnagar (1953), Central Water and Power Research Station Poona (1937), Deccan College of Research, Poona, Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun (1906), Haffkine Institute, Bombay (1896), Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Kanpur, Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi (1905), Indian Central Cotton Committee Technological Laboratory, Matunga, Bombay (1934), Indian Dairy Research Institute, Bangalore (1923), Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (1911), Indian Institute of Sugar Technology, Kanpur (1936), Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur (1901), Indian Lac

Research Institute, Ranchi, Indian School of Mines and Applied Geology, Dhanbad, Indian Standard Institution, Delhi, Indian Statistical Institute Calcutta (1932), Indian Veterinary Institute, Izatnagar (1922), Indian Veterinary Institute, Mukteshwar, Jute Technological Research Laboratory, Calcutta, Malaria Institute, Delhi, National Chemical Laboratory, Poona (1950), National Metallurgical Laboratory, Jamshedpur, National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi (1950), Nutrition Research Laboratory, Coonoor, Patel Institute of Chest Diseases, Delhi, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay (1945)

These institutions are mainly concerned with specialized research in particular fields of study and investigation, although some of them undertake considerable teaching functions. Thus the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute prepares students for postgraduate degrees in Sanskrit of the Poona University, and the Institute of Jute Technology is affiliated to Calcutta University in a similar way. The Indian School of Mines and Applied Geology grants its own diplomas. The Indian Institute of Science, the Forest Research Institute and Colleges, and the Indian Agricultural Research Institute grant diplomas and fellowships.

The diplomas and fellowships of these institutions have a very high standing in the country. Many of these research institutes have been recognized by the Inter university Board of India as centres where a university student holding a first research degree can carry on further work for higher degrees.

Organization of Education

A pupil enters a primary school between the ages of 4 and 6. The primary stage ordinarily lasts four or five years. The middle and high school stages which follow are usually of six (3+3) or seven (3+4) years' duration. Thus the normal age at which a pupil completes his high school education is 16-17. Occasionally one finds much younger students finishing their school course and seeking entrance to a university although in many universities there is a rule by which students below the age of 16 cannot be admitted. At the end of the high school course there is a school-leaving or matriculation examination which qualifies a student for admission to a university. In some parts of the country the matriculation examination is conducted by the university. Elsewhere, it is conducted by the government or by a High School Board. The ordinary university course is of four years' duration. At the end of the first two years there is an examination called the Intermediate examination. This may be an arts or a science or commerce or other examination. The successful candidate then takes the B.A. or B.Sc., B.Com., or other bachelor degree course, which is usually of two years' duration. At the end of the two years a student appears for the bachelor's degree (B.A., B.Sc., etc.) examination. According to the courses he took or the marks he obtained, the successful candidate obtains a pass or

honours degree In some universities, however, there are, in addition to the two year pass courses, honours courses which are of three years' duration after the intermediate. After the bachelor's degree, there is the master's degree which is awarded after a further period of one or two years of study and passing a further examination. The present practice in Annamalai, Andhra, Madras and Travancore universities, however, is to award the master's degree after the lapse of some time, without further examination, to candidates who have passed a bachelor's honours degree examination. In these universities the examination for the master's degree (for those who have obtained the bachelor's pass degree) is identical with the honours examination.

Almost all universities have provision for research work in arts, science and the social sciences leading to the degrees of Ph D (or D Phil), and D Sc, or D Litt. There are also special degrees and titles for oriental studies and the fine arts.

Most universities have, in addition to courses in arts and science professional and technical courses such as law, medicine, engineering, agriculture, commerce, teaching, technology, etc. The usual degrees are bachelor of laws (B L or LL B), bachelor of medicine and surgery (M B, B S), bachelor of pharmacy (B Pharm), bachelor of engineering (B E), bachelor of agriculture (B Ag), bachelor of commerce (B Com), bachelor of teaching (B T), bachelor of science technology (B Sc Tech), etc. In almost all Indian universities the courses in education and law are postgraduate courses. The medical and engineering courses are post intermediate and last five years and four years respectively. The courses in agriculture, commerce, etc., are also post-intermediate and are usually of the same duration as the courses in arts and science. In these faculties also there is provision in several universities for postgraduate study and research, leading to masters' and doctorate degrees.

In Delhi an important experiment in rearranging the relative duration of school and university courses is being tried. There the school stage leads on to a higher secondary examination which is higher than the matriculation and a little lower than the intermediate examination. The university course (whether pass or honours) which begins after that is of three years' duration, and there is no intermediate examination. In the states of Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Bharat, the intermediate examination is conducted by boards of intermediate education and not by the universities and university education properly so called begins after the intermediate examination. This arrangement affects the universities of Agra, Allahabad and Lucknow.

University Administration

The normal organization of university administration is as follows.

There is a Chancellor who is usually a figurehead. He may be the president of the country, the governor of a state or a

ruling prince. He has no administrative function, but may preside at ceremonial functions such as Convocations for the award of degrees. The executive head of a university is the Vice-Chancellor who may be a full time paid officer or an honorary one. He presides over the meetings of the various councils of his university and is the mouthpiece of the university to the outside world. The Vice-Chancellor is usually appointed by the Chancellor on the recommendation of the Syndicate or Senate, but there are considerable differences in practice. The chief administrative officer is the Registrar, who deals with all correspondence, prepares minutes of all meetings and controls the university office. He is a full time paid officer. In addition to these officers, there may be a Pro-Chancellor and a Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Only four or five Indian universities have these additional officers.

The 'authorities' of a university are the Executive Council (called the Syndicate in some universities), the Court or Senate, the Academic Council, and the faculties. The Executive Council (or Syndicate) and the Court (or Senate) have the responsibility of framing Statutes and regulations and dealing with all matters connected with the organization and administration of the university's affairs. They are composed of persons representing various interests in the life of the university and the community in which the university exists. Most of the members of these bodies are elected by different constituencies, but a few are nominated by the Chancellor.

The Academic Council deals with academic questions generally, and is chiefly concerned with courses of study and the organization of teaching and examinations. It co-ordinates the various faculties. The usual faculties are those of arts, science, medicine, law, etc. The head of a faculty is called the Dean and is usually a professor of the university. It is the Dean's business to attend to the framing and working of the various courses of study in his faculty. A faculty usually has several Boards of Study to help it to frame syllabuses in different subjects, appoint examiners, etc. Faculties which are concerned exclusively with subjects of postgraduate study, such as education, law, etc., tend to become somewhat like autonomous colleges, but faculties of arts, science, etc., have to co-ordinate the work of undergraduate and postgraduate classes, and, in the case of the affiliating universities, to deal with a large number of institutions. These faculties consist of a number of departments (e.g. English, Sanskrit, History, etc.) and each Department has its own Head or Chairman or Director who is responsible to the Dean. Quite frequently the Dean's only function is to preside at meetings of the faculty and maintain a general supervision over the various departments of teaching.

Colleges which form parts of a university are usually autonomous institutions which may have been set up by private

agencies (missionary societies, local educational societies, private individuals), or by government, or by the university itself. The university exercises some control over the appointment of the teaching staff of these colleges, but in actual practice they are almost wholly free in this matter. The head of a college is the Principal who is responsible for the supervision of the academic and administrative work of his institution. Some colleges are miniature universities, having provision for several subjects of study leading up to the research degree stage. But a college is not free to prepare its own syllabuses and award its own degrees. It prepares candidates for examinations conducted by the university to which it is affiliated or of which it is a constituent part. The number of students in a college may vary from a few hundred to a few thousand.

Subjects and Courses

Until recently, the arrangement of the educational ladder in the schools provided for a primary stage of education concerned with the 'three Rs', and the rudiments of history and geography taught in the local Indian language. At the middle school stage the student was first brought into contact with English, which formed an important additional subject. Then at the high school stage English was used as the medium of instruction, and the school leaving examination was conducted in the English language. The position has now altered and English is introduced at a much later stage in the school system, in most places the medium of instruction is an Indian language and the examinations are also conducted in an Indian language. But English is still a compulsory subject of study. However, a number of schools in the large cities teach wholly through the English language and prepare candidates for the Cambridge Senior Certificate or equivalent examinations. These are still popular with certain sections of the population, but the trends of national life may not make their continued existence necessary or practicable for a much longer period.

A typical high school course usually includes the following subjects: English, mathematics (arithmetic, algebra and geometry), history, geography, a classical language (Sanskrit or Persian), an Indian language and science. But there is considerable variation from region to region. Many regions have a system of groups of subjects and students have the option to select one of the groups.

The courses for the intermediate examination usually consist of English, a classical or modern language, and three other subjects belonging to the arts or science or commerce or other groups. In most universities the intermediate stage is conceived as a part of 'general education' and the only specialization is in the choice of the arts or science or some other group of subjects. Students intending to take up a professional course such as medicine or engineering have to select a group of subjects related to their choice.

ruling prince. He has no administrative function, but may preside at ceremonial functions such as Convocations for the award of degrees. The executive head of a university is the Vice-Chancellor who may be a full time paid officer or an honorary one. He presides over the meetings of the various councils of his university and is the mouthpiece of the university to the outside world. The Vice-Chancellor is usually appointed by the Chancellor on the recommendation of the Syndicate or Senate, but there are considerable differences in practice. The chief administrative officer is the Registrar, who deals with all correspondence, prepares minutes of all meetings and controls the university office. He is a full time paid officer. In addition to these officers, there may be a Pro-Chancellor and a Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Only four or five Indian universities have these additional officers.

The 'authorities' of a university are the Executive Council (called the Syndicate in some universities), the Court or Senate, the Academic Council, and the faculties. The Executive Council (or Syndicate) and the Court (or Senate) have the responsibility of framing Statutes and regulations and dealing with all matters connected with the organization and administration of the university's affairs. They are composed of persons representing various interests in the life of the university and the community in which the university exists. Most of the members of these bodies are elected by different constituencies, but a few are nominated by the Chancellor.

The Academic Council deals with academic questions generally, and is chiefly concerned with courses of study and the organization of teaching and examinations. It co-ordinates the various faculties. The usual faculties are those of arts, science, medicine, law, etc. The head of a faculty is called the Dean and is usually a professor of the university. It is the Dean's business to attend to the framing and working of the various courses of study in his faculty. A faculty usually has several Boards of Study to help it to frame syllabuses in different subjects, appoint examiners, etc. Faculties which are concerned exclusively with subjects of postgraduate study, such as education, law, etc., tend to become somewhat like autonomous colleges, but faculties of arts, science, etc. have to co-ordinate the work of undergraduate and postgraduate classes, and, in the case of the affiliating universities, to deal with a large number of institutions. These faculties consist of a number of departments (e.g. English, Sanskrit, History, etc.) and each Department has its own Head or Chairman or Director who is responsible to the Dean. Quite frequently the Dean's only function is to preside at meetings of the faculty, and maintain a general supervision over the various departments of teaching.

Colleges which form parts of a university are usually autonomous institutions which may have been set up by private

agencies (missionary societies, local educational societies, private individuals), or by government, or by the university itself. The university exercises some control over the appointment of the teaching staff of these colleges, but in actual practice they are almost wholly free in this matter. The head of a college is the Principal who is responsible for the supervision of the academic and administrative work of his institution. Some colleges are miniature universities, having provision for several subjects of study leading up to the research degree stage. But a college is not free to prepare its own syllabuses and award its own degrees. It prepares candidates for examinations conducted by the university to which it is affiliated or of which it is a constituent part. The number of students in a college may vary from a few hundred to a few thousand.

Subjects and Courses

Until recently, the arrangement of the educational ladder in the schools provided for a primary stage of education concerned with the 'three Rs' and the rudiments of history and geography taught in the local Indian language. At the middle school stage the student was first brought into contact with English, which formed an important additional subject. Then at the high school stage English was used as the medium of instruction, and the school leaving examination was conducted in the English language. The position has now altered and English is introduced at a much later stage in the school system, in most places the medium of instruction is an Indian language and the examinations are also conducted in an Indian language. But English is still a compulsory subject of study. However, a number of schools in the large cities teach wholly through the English language and prepare candidates for the Cambridge Senior Certificate or equivalent examinations. These are still popular with certain sections of the population, but the trends of national life may not make their continued existence necessary or practicable for a much longer period.

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At the B A stage the pass course includes two or three papers in English and two or three other selected subjects. Usually these subjects are arranged in groups, so that a student studies two or three related subjects. The honours courses, as already indicated, are of two kinds. In several universities the honours course consists of additional papers in one of the subjects which form the pass course and, in order to secure honours a student has to obtain first or second class marks in those papers. A student may take honours in English or history or mathematics or Sanskrit or physics or chemistry and so on, he then has to put in two more years of study for the M A or M Sc examination, which is usually confined to one subject. The three years' honours courses are specialized courses, and require the intensive study of one subject. In most universities the three years' honours course requires also the study of a subsidiary subject. As has been pointed out above, the practice with regard to the M A or M Sc examination after the three years' honours course varies from university to university. One or two universities have no honours courses.

The master's degree course requires specialization in one subject. It is not usually a research course but in some universities there is provision for a dissertation to be presented by a candidate in lieu of a part or the whole of the M A or M Sc examination. There is also provision in some universities for part of the course to be completed in the first year (called M A or M Sc previous examination), so that for the final examination candidates have to prepare only the rest of the course.

Research degrees are usually of the same pattern as in British or American universities. Students select a field of research and, under the guidance of a teacher appointed for the purpose, work for at least two years after a postgraduate degree, and then present a thesis. Except where M A, or M Sc is a research degree, the first research degree is doctor of philosophy (Ph D or D Phil). There are higher degrees like D Litt and D Sc. In the Faculty of Law there is the degree of doctor of laws (LL D) for which one may supplicate with a thesis. Some universities have a junior research degree called master of literature (M Litt).

Social Sciences

For historical reasons the universities of India have tended to have a bias in the direction of literature and the humanities. The learning of the English language was one of the main purposes of education and special emphasis had to be laid on English language and literature in all courses of study.

In the last quarter of a century or so, however, much stress has been laid on science. By far the largest proportion of staff in Indian universities consists of the pure sciences (physics, chemistry, geology, statistics, botany and zoology) and applied sciences and technology are still a long way behind. But rapid

strides are being taken in some universities to remedy this situation, especially in the fields of applied physics and chemistry, and pharmacy.

The only 'social science' that has received adequate attention in India is economics. In fact far too many students have taken up economics as a subject of study in recent years, and subjects like philosophy and the classics have suffered. Recently political science has been introduced in many universities, either as a separate department of study, or in association with history and economics. Sociology has not yet come into its own. The Bombay School of Economics and Sociology has a separate department of sociology, but in most other places it is regarded 'as a name for all the odds and ends which are not covered by other social studies as economics, politics, social psychology, social anthropology.' Social anthropology is taught in a few universities, but the position is not satisfactory. Geography has been introduced as a subject of advanced study in a few universities. Psychology was and still is treated as a part of philosophy, but is coming into its own. In many universities emphasis is now being laid on experimental and social psychology. Studies in such problems as group tensions are being carried out in some places. The growth of interest in social sciences is indicated by the establishment and development of separate institutions for the study of some of these—among these may be mentioned the Gokhale Institute of Political Science and Economics at Poona, the J. K. Institute of Human Relations and Sociology at Lucknow. Social work is receiving recognition through the establishment of schools of social work in some universities, which prepare students for degrees in the subject.

Library and Laboratory Facilities

Library facilities in Indian universities are, with a very few exceptions, poor in comparison with Europe or America. At the headquarters of affiliating universities (like Calcutta, Bombay, Madras), students have access to at least two libraries—the university library and their own college library. There are also public libraries to which students can have access. But in the smaller towns where the only library is the college library the situation is usually not very satisfactory.

The position as regards laboratories is somewhat similar. The universities have reasonably satisfactory equipment, but in general the equipment available for advanced work is limited. Fortunately, however, many of the national laboratories and research institutes already referred to partly make up for this. Opportunities for research work in association with industrial concerns are very few, but in the last four or five years some industries have shown an interest in education and have been helping to set up research institutes connected with their own specific activities.

Medium of Instruction

The medium of lectures and examinations at most universities in India is English. At the Osmania University, however, the medium has been Urdu and it is now proposed to use Hindi. At the universities of Lucknow and Nagpur arrangements have been made for changing the medium from English to Hindi or, in the case of Nagpur, to Marathi also. Some other universities also have plans to introduce an Indian language medium in course of time. The question of medium of instruction at the university stage involves many important considerations. Certain academic considerations and local sentiment demand that instruction at all stages should be given in the mother tongue or the regional language, and a University Education Commission appointed by the Government of India in 1948 recommended the adoption of the regional languages as the media of university instruction. But it is feared by many that, unless all the universities of India teach in a common language, the unity of the country and the possibility of interchange of scholars and the movement of ideas will be very adversely affected. It has been decided that the official national language should be Hindi and many people therefore advocate the adoption of Hindi as the language of university teaching. But this is not a simple matter. In regions where Hindi is not the language of the people its adoption will be fraught with serious inconvenience and will be resisted by local sentiment. Linguistically Hindi is a 'foreign' language to many people in India. Apart from this, there are other practical considerations which make some people doubt the wisdom of attempting to change the medium of instruction from English to an Indian language in the immediate future. Some of these are (a) that the Indian languages need to undergo a great deal more development before they can be used as vehicles for the expression of the highest learning; (b) it will take a long time to prepare the necessary textbooks and to create libraries in the Indian languages concerned; (c) it will not be easy for some time to find an adequate number of teachers who can lecture on technical subjects in Indian languages.

Notwithstanding the objections to change of medium it seems certain that changes will take place and many educators are exercised not over the question of medium but over the questions of how and to what extent English should continue to be learned by Indian students. The changes and vacillations of recent years have affected the level of achievement of Indian students in the study of English, and if something is not done to improve the position of English, India may lose the advantage she now has of being able to use with great facility a language of international currency. It seems fairly certain that all universities in India, whatever medium they may adopt, will continue to provide for some teaching of English for many years to come.

CHAPTER TWO

THE TEACHING OF ECONOMICS

By C. N. Vakil

Introduction

This report was prepared at the request of the International Economic Association on the general lines indicated for the purpose of discussion at a round-table conference convened by the Association in co-operation with Unesco, held at Talloires, Lake Annecy, France, in the last week of August 1951.

In view of the diversity of courses and methods followed in the different universities in the country, the only way to get the necessary information at short notice was to enter into correspondence with those in a position to help. After a good deal of inquiries of this nature spread over three months, it was possible to analyse and digest the material in the present form. The author's sincere thanks are due to all those persons who helped in this work by replying to inquiries which were rather frequent in some cases and at short notice¹. It would not have been possible for the author to do this work in such a short time but for the enthusiastic co-operation and help willingly rendered by Dr. D. T. Lakdawala, Reader in Economics and Mr P. R. Brahmananda, Research Assistant in Economics in the School of Economics and Sociology, University of Bombay.

The report was revised and completed in 1952. It was revised again and brought up to date for publication in December 1954.

¹ Information for this paper was collected from the different universities in India, on the basis of questionnaires. The questionnaires were also sent to at least one professor of economics in each university centre. In many cases several communications were exchanged to elicit information and clear doubtful points.

The following universities sent replies: Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Andhra, Annamalai, Baroda, Banaras, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Gauhati, Gujarat, Lucknow, Karnatak, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur, Poona, Punjab, Rajputana, Saugor, Travancore.

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Structure and General Importance of the Teaching of Economics and of Economics as a Subject

Economics and Social Sciences

Economics is now regarded in India as one of the important social sciences, and has been included in all the universities¹ in the lists of optional subjects for the B A degree course. Some universities have made separate provision for the B A honours course in economics. Almost all the universities have provision for the M A degree and the student has the option of taking all his papers in economics only.² At the graduate stage the student is free to combine economics with other subjects either in social sciences or in the humanities, and is not compelled to take any particular combination. In Calcutta and Gauhati universities a student taking up the B A honours (two years' course) has to appear for two additional papers in politics and study of political classics. A student of the Bombay University appearing for the B A (Special) degree has also to take two papers in one of the following groups (a) political science, (b) statistical methods, (c) comparative social institutions. In the B A honours (three years) of the South Indian universities—Andhra, Annamalai, Madras, Mysore and Travancore—a student appearing for the economics honours has to take one paper at least either in politics or in history. The general trend at the B A or B A honours stage in most of the universities is to enable a student to have some knowledge of subjects other than those in which he specializes.

Some years ago in Bombay University, a student taking the B A economics pass course had to take three papers in history and politics—British history (including constitutional history), Indian history and history and politics. In fact, the pass course for the B A degree was rightly called not an economics course but a history economics course. A student taking up the B A honours course in economics had to take, in addition to the same papers taken by the B A history economics student, three further papers in economics. At the M A stage, however, greater freedom was allowed. But up to 1945, a student could take only a group of four papers in economics and had to take another group of four papers either in history, politics or sociology. While this combination is still permitted, it is now possible for a student to take all the eight papers in economics.

For the degree courses in commerce a student must combine several compulsory papers with papers in economics. Accounting, business organization, secretarial practice, salesmanship,

1 See Appendix I for information regarding the character of the different universities of India.

2 The only exception is Lucknow University where a paper on the principles of sociology is compulsory for a student taking up the M A course in economics.

mercantile law, etc., are usually compulsory. For his M Com degree only, a student may take almost all his papers in economics and applied economic subjects. These combinations in the commerce syllabus, however, follow from the nature of the course, not from any view of economics as a dependent branch.

Most of the universities have now separate departments for economics equipped with separate staff, headed by a university professor. The evolution of the teaching of economics in Calcutta University, one of the oldest of the Indian universities, may be taken as indicative of the changes in the general trend of thought on this subject. Calcutta University was established in the year 1858. Till 1907, political economy was not a separate subject of study. Up to 1882, students reading for history honours were required to take one paper in political economy, from 1882 onwards, the paper became compulsory for students taking up the B A pass course in history. In the following year, a paper on political economy was included for students offering history at their M A examination. From 1907, economics was separated from history both for the B A and the M A examinations. Even then, politics was combined with economics and a student taking economics at his M A was required to take two papers in (a) politics and (b) public administration (up to 1930) or constitutions (up to 1948). This change has however, been gradual. The department of economics at Madras University was organized in 1925. The first research degrees the M Litt and the D Litt in the Faculty of Arts were introduced in 1935. The Ph D degree was in existence even earlier. At Mysore University, however, the professor of History was formerly in charge of the Department of Economics also. Gradually a process of differentiation set in and a separate Department of Economics was created. At Allahabad University the teaching of economics as a separate subject had begun earlier than 1920 and it had been introduced at the postgraduate stage in 1922. Among research institutions, the School of Economics and Sociology was started by Bombay University in 1921 as its first teaching institute. This school is the oldest institution providing specialized teaching and research facilities in economics. A department of politics has been recently added to this school. The Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics which is affiliated to the University of Poona was founded in 1930. This institute specializes in research in agricultural economics in addition to providing facilities for the Ph D course. The Delhi School of Economics which provides facilities for postgraduate research was started in 1948 under the auspices of Delhi University. The school also organizes and conducts postgraduate teaching in economics with the help of its own staff and selected teachers drawn from the constituent colleges of the university.

Degrees and Diplomas for Economics

Economics usually predominates in the arts and commerce

courses of the universities. In arts, it is one of the important optional subjects for the B A and the M A degrees. In commerce, quite a few papers are devoted to economics, some compulsory. Economics is also, now, a compulsory subject in some of the professional courses, especially engineering and agriculture. The Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, has a section in industrial economics for the purpose of training science and technology students in some of the problems of the economics of industry. A few universities have diploma courses, where economics is regarded as an important subject, for example, the University of Madras¹. Economics is a compulsory subject for other diploma courses conducted by the same university, *i.e.*, the diplomas in politics, public administration, statistics and journalism. In some of the examinations held by professional institutions, for instance, the Associate Certificate of the Indian Institute of Bankers, economics plays an important role. In this course consisting of two examinations, one paper in economics is compulsory in the first examination and two in the second. Similarly, in the examination of the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India, economics is a compulsory subject in the examination. Some of the diploma examinations of the Indian Merchants' Chamber also stress the study of economics.

State Assistance to Education

The State in India has played an important direct pioneer role in the advancement of university education, through the establishment of government colleges, which have in many cases served as models. Owing to the rapid rise in the number of private arts and commerce colleges, their numerical importance is much less now than in the past, and also less than in other faculties, say medical or engineering. In Bombay City and suburbs the government was the first to establish an arts college (Elphinstone College, 1860) and a commerce college (Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, 1914). Today in the same area, in which now the Bombay University has jurisdiction, of 10 arts colleges, 2 are government colleges, and of the 2 commerce colleges, 1 is a government college. Several arts and commerce colleges in India are run by private educational societies, or in the case of teaching universities, by the universities themselves. Some states donate to the colleges 50 per cent of the salaries of the staff and part of the cost of the buildings and other equipment. Appendix II shows the sources of income of the universities. A glance at the table reveals that Mysore, Osmania, Annamalai, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Delhi, Lucknow, Travancore, Punjab and Saugor Universities rely very heavily

1 The diploma course consists of six papers: general economics, economic history and geography, social economics, rural economics, statistical methods, co-operation. In addition a dissertation based on personal field work is compulsory.

upon government grants. Except Punjab, Saugor and Travancore, all these are teaching universities. The rest of the universities, excluding Aligarh, Allahabad, Lucknow, Saugar and Annamalai which are residential universities, are affiliating and examining bodies. The total expenditure of these universities is therefore less than that of the universities which are mainly teaching universities. Bombay University is a teaching university only in respect of postgraduate departments in economics, sociology, politics, statistics and technology. With the exception of Bombay, Banaras, East Punjab and Annamalai, the Indian universities do not derive any substantial income from endowments.

The grants to the universities are not governed by any fixed principles but the general practice has been, as in the case of Great Britain, not to reduce the recurring grants once given. Research work in economics is largely in the hands of the universities or private bodies. Since the grants are usually for general purposes and as most of these institutions are also interested in subjects other than economics, it is not possible to work out the exact importance of government finance in the teaching of economics.¹ Direct financial help for the teaching of economics by the state and central governments has been rather limited, except in the case of the recently started Delhi School of Economics which has been receiving special grants from the central government as an institution forming part of the Delhi University, which is directly under the central government. The Government of Jaipur also gave a liberal donation to the University of Rajputana to found a department of economics. This department also receives liberal grants annually from the Government of Rajasthan. The need for such assistance is being increasingly recognized. For instance, the agricultural economics section at the University of Bombay in the postgraduate economics department owes its existence largely to grants from the Government of Bombay. With the above exception, no specific departments of the state governments or of the central government have so far given any grants worth mentioning to bodies mainly interested in teaching and research in economics. This contrasts sadly with the position of teaching and research in the natural sciences, where the central government takes direct interest through the Council of Industrial and Scientific Research, and other bodies. Large amounts have been spent by the central government in creating a chain of special laboratories in the different branches of natural sciences in different parts of the country and in giving grants to existing scientific institutions and

1 It is very difficult to get any idea of the exact expenditure on the departments of economics in the various universities. In Bombay University, the total expenditure on the department of economics amounted to Rs 125,000 in 1950-51, in Calcutta University the annual expenditure on the department of economics is about Rs 57,000 and in Madras University it is about Rs 39,000.

for encouraging research. The state governments also show the same partiality to natural sciences.

Private institutions receiving government grants enjoy a fair degree of autonomy and independence. They have only to act in accordance with the general rules regarding grants, which are meant to ensure their efficient and proper use. The universities enjoy a large degree of autonomy in their internal affairs. In many cases, the heads of the states, who are usually the *ex-officio* Chancellors, are given considerable powers under the University Acts. The use of these powers in a few cases has occasioned embittered feelings. There is, however, an understanding that these powers should be used in emergencies only, or in cases where there would be no reasonable doubt as to where the general interests lie, and, on the whole, code of behaviour has been adhered to.

Economics and the Public Services

Except for certain specialized posts, knowledge of economics is not considered a necessary qualification for appointment to the public services. In the most important service, for example, the Indian Administrative Service, economics takes its place along with other subjects. A student appearing for the Indian Administrative or other services examinations has to take compulsorily two papers in English, one paper in essay and general knowledge each and three papers in the optional subjects, wherein economics is one among several subjects¹. The courses for the Indian Administrative and Foreign Services examinations have been recently revised, as from 1951-52 a student wishing to qualify for admission to these services has to appear in two additional papers in the optional group. Advanced economic theory and advanced Indian economic problems are included in the subjects for the additional optional group. A candidate may choose one of these two subjects and may select another paper from among the other optional subjects. There is some provision for teaching economics to probationers in the Indian Administrative Training School, Delhi. The general theory so far has been that people who went through the examination for the Indian Civil Service till recently, or go through that for the Indian Administrative Service now, are fitted to hold all kinds of posts, the special qualifications for which they could acquire in a short time, in view of their general intelligence and capacity.

1 The popularity of economics among the students appearing for the Indian Administrative Services examination is indicated by the following figures

Year	Total no. of students	Students taking economics
1948	911	%
1949	984	35
1950	1258	34
		34

For a few technical posts, where this theory has been found most patently defective, recruitment has had to be made from persons qualified in special subjects. Such cases of special recruitment have recently increased. While selecting candidates for posts for which a knowledge of economics is essential or desirable, the Union Public Service Commission obtains the assistance of an expert in the field of economics whenever they consider it desirable. For posts such as those in the Research Department of the Reserve Bank or in the offices of the Economic Adviser to Government, an economics degree either based on papers or research is considered essential. It is not possible, however, to give a quantitative estimate of posts in public services for which a knowledge of economics is regarded as essential. In view of the rapidly increasing functions of the central and state governments in the economic sphere, it is obvious that there are many more 'general' posts, which should be filled only by persons having a special training in economics.

Quantitative information is even more difficult to obtain in the case of the semi public and large-scale institutions, but it is a matter of common observation that of late for many posts of commercial associations, knowledge of economics is appreciated. This is also evidenced by the fact that in many of the diploma courses, economics has been given an important place.

Organization and Aims of Teaching

Qualifications for Admission

A student is generally admitted to college after 11 years of training at school. Economics begins at the intermediate stage, that is, after one further year of college training in some universities and immediately after the matriculation in other universities. The specialized study of economics begins at the B A stage for which an intermediate arts certificate of the university is in most cases essential. In the universities of Rajputana, Agra and Allahabad, where, however, university teaching only begins at the B A stage, it is required to pass an examination of the Intermediate Board for admission. We may, therefore, say that the real training in economics begins after 13 years of study. In cases where economics is optional at the earlier examination, candidates who have taken economics at the earlier stages are naturally preferred. In the South Indian universities where there is a three years' honours course, only those students who had taken economics as an optional subject at the intermediate stage are admitted to the economics honours course. For the M A course in economics usually only those candidates who have taken economics at the B A stage are admitted. This, however, is not a rigid rule, and there are quite a few cases where students passing their B A examination with other subjects are allowed to take economics for their M A. No other special requirements are generally insisted upon for admission to the economics course. Only in some specific branches are special qualifications demand-

ed. For instance, in the M A course of the Bombay University, a student can take econometrics only if he has passed his intermediate with mathematics. This is a reasonable requirement, following from the nature of the subject. The age of the candidate when he goes in for a specialized training in economics is generally eighteen.

The requirements in commerce courses are more or less the same. Requirements for the professional courses and diplomas vary widely. Matriculation, is usually an essential qualification, though in many cases the educational qualifications of an average candidate are much better. In most of these cases, it is also stipulated that a candidate must have some practical experience in the field which he intends to choose as his career. For instance, a candidate appearing for Part II of the Associate Examination of the Indian Institute of Bankers must have had at least one year's continuous service in a bank immediately preceding the date of entry, for the examination of the Institute of Accountants, apprenticeship with a chartered accountant is a necessary qualification. The age of the candidates appearing for these professional examinations varies widely.

Differentiation in the Levels of teaching Economics

A student can obtain some elementary knowledge of economics in his intermediate studies, but he can take up an intensive study of economics only at the B A stage. The usual duration of a specialized B A economics course is two years, a student takes two more years to get his M A. In some universities, however, a student intending to specialize in any particular subject takes three years for his honours degree. At Mysore University, a student who has finished the honours course has to study for one year more to get the M A degree. The universities of Madras and Andhra confer the M A degree on B A honours graduates after a times lapse, on the payment of necessary fee. A student thus ordinarily receives four years' intensive training in economics before obtaining the master's degree. A few students pursue their studies further for a research degree in economics. In some universities students can prepare M A, M Litt, or M Com degrees wholly by research, but the general tendency now is to encourage research only after a student has obtained his master's degree based on written papers. The Ph D degree is conferred in many universities after a minimum of two years of research in economics under competent guidance. A student can also pursue independent research after his master's or Ph D degree, have his results published and on this basis apply for a D Litt or D Phil degree. The duration of commerce courses is on a par with that of the arts courses, diploma courses are of varying durations, and for all the three non university examinations we have mentioned earlier, no regular teaching arrangements exist.

Intermediate

In almost all the Indian universities a student is admitted to the intermediate course if he has passed the matriculation or secondary school leaving certificate examination. In some cases—Ajmer, Agra and Allahabad—the intermediate course is managed by the Intermediate Board of the particular region. The general rule, however, is that the various universities have direct responsibility for the intermediate course. Except at Delhi, the intermediate course consists of two years' study, at the end of which the candidate is required to sit for an examination conducted by the university or the Intermediate Board. The intermediate course may be classified into three divisions: (a) intermediate in arts, (b) intermediate in science, and (c) intermediate in commerce. Economics is included in the intermediate arts and the intermediate commerce courses as an optional subject. In some cases economics is also included among the optional subjects in the intermediate science course. Appendix III, 'Intermediate Arts', gives an account of the different papers in economics. In Bombay and Annamalai universities the student is required to write one paper in economics. At Mysore, Madras, Andhra, Aligarh and Allahabad the student is required to write two papers, and at Banaras, three papers.

At Bombay University, the paper on elementary economics is compulsory. At other universities the student may choose economics as an optional subject, which at the intermediate stage is studied in conjunction with various subjects, including world history, Greek and Roman history, psychology, British history, civics and Indian administration.

The student at Bombay University is required to take the following papers for his intermediate arts examination: English prose and poetry, English composition, modern Indian language or additional English, classical or modern European language, world history, elementary economics, mathematics or logic. In most universities, mathematics is usually among the optional subjects in the intermediate arts course. In some cases the student is offered the possibility of taking a group consisting of economics and mathematics. The general trend appears to be to allow the student the option of taking either mathematics or logic. Except at Bombay University, the intermediate course consists of compulsory papers in English and in a regional Indian language or Sanskrit, and three optional subjects. Economics is included in the optional group.

B A and B A Honours

In the B A pass course, economics is one of the important optional subjects. Appendix III 'B A', gives details concerning the number and titles of papers in economics at the B A examination in the various universities. In Madras, Mysore, Andhra, Banaras, Delhi, Rajputana and Patna universities there are three papers in economics. In Bombay and Annamalai there are four

papers in economics and in Aligarh, Allahabad, Calcutta, Gauhati, Lucknow, Poona and Punjab there are two papers in economics. Usually the first paper deals with theory of value and distribution, and the second with money, banking and international trade. Where there is a third paper, it usually deals with Indian economic problems or modern economic history of India. In Bombay University stress is laid on study of the economic history of India as well as of the great industrial powers.

A student sitting for the B A examination is required to take some papers in English. At some universities, such as Mysore he must take a paper in the local language for the B A degree examination. For the B A, course instruction is given in many of the social sciences. A student may take along with economics, either one or two among the following subjects: political science, psychology, sociology, history, Islamic culture and philosophy. Students in some universities have the option of taking mathematics with economics, but at no university is the study of mathematics with economics compulsory.

For the B A honours course (Appendix III, 'B A Honours I' and 'B A Honours II') there are different systems prevailing in the Indian universities. In the universities of Calcutta, Gauhati, Patna, Poona and Punjab, the B A honours course is of two years' duration and runs concurrently with the B A pass course. In Calcutta, Delhi and Gauhati, although the honours course is of the same duration as the B A pass course, there are different papers for the honours examination. In Poona, Patna and Punjab, students appearing for the B A honours examination have to write two or three papers in economics in addition to the papers in economics taken by the B A pass student. In Lucknow University a student taking up the honours course must write one paper in statistics, in addition to the papers taken by a student preparing for the B A pass degree. In Delhi University both the B A pass and the honours courses are of three years' duration. However, unlike other universities, the intermediate course of Delhi University is of one year's duration. The total number of papers which a student appearing for the B A honours course in economics is required to take ranges from three in Calcutta to eight in Delhi. In Calcutta and Gauhati a student has to take two papers in political science.

In the South Indian universities—Andhra, Annamalai, Madras, Mysore and Travancore—the B A honours course is of three years' duration. Generally a student has to take eight papers in economics. In Mysore the course is divided into two groups: major and minor. The major group consists of eight papers and the minor of four. A candidate has to sit for the papers in the minor group at the end of the second year. In Travancore a candidate has to appear for a viva voce examination also. In all these universities the B A honours course in economics makes

provision for one paper in political science. In the universities of Andhra, Annamalai, Madras and Travancore there is no separate M A course for economics. 'A student who has taken the B A degree may be admitted to the second year of the B A honours course, and will on passing this examination be awarded the M A degree.' A student completing the B A honours course is awarded the M A degree after the lapse of a certain period. At Mysore after passing the B A honours examination one year's further study is required and the student must sit another examination for the M A degree.

Some Economics Courses

As an illustration of the main types of courses we give below in some detail the courses of three of the oldest universities—Bombay, Calcutta, Madras—and also of Mysore. The B A course in the Bombay University is divided into B A general and B A special. In both cases a student has to take compulsory papers in English and four voluntary subjects (eight papers) in the optional groups. A student for the B A general course has to choose his voluntary subjects from at least three of the following groups: languages, philosophy, history, economics, sociology, mathematics, science.

The various subjects under the economics group are (a) principles of economics, (b) economic history, (c) political science, (d) statistical methods, (e) comparative social institutions. A student who chooses statistical methods must compulsorily take principles of economics. The maximum number of papers in economics that a B A general student can take is four. In the B A special course, the economics group consists of one additional subject, viz Indian economic problems. A student for the B A special course has to take at least three subjects out of any one group. The student taking the economics group has compulsorily to take principles of economics and Indian economic problems. Thus the maximum number of papers he can take in economics is six and the minimum four. Those students who pass the B A general and the special examinations in first or second class, are designated as B A honours. The B A general course offers a wide choice of subjects, while the special course leads to specialization in a particular subject. In Calcutta University for the B A pass degree in economics, three papers have to be prepared: (a) principles of economics, (b) political science, and (c) study of Indian problems. A student reading for the honours degree in economics (two years' course) must take the following six papers: (a) principles of economics, (b) political science, (c) Indian economics, (d) money, banking and public finance, (e) study of political classics, and (f) essay. A Madras University student taking up economics and history (main economics) course, has to take three papers in economics: general economics, rural economics and public finance, and modern economic history of

England and India, the B A honours course in economics (three years' course) consists of six papers in economics (a) economics I—principles, (b) economics II—currency, banking and international trade, (c) public finance including public utilities, (d) economic history (Great Britain, India, France Germany and the U S A), (e) two special subjects—rural economics, industrial and labour problems history of economic thought including classics. The Mysore University economics course for the B A comprises three papers in economics (a) economic principles, (b) currency, banking, international trade, public finance, and (c) Indian economics. The three year B A honours course is composed of eight papers (a) economic principles, (b) money, and banking, (c) industry and labour, (d) public finance, (e) international economics, (f) economic history since 1900, (g) essay, and (h) political science.

MA Courses

M A courses (Appendix III, M A.) in all the Indian universities except at Mysore are of two years' duration. At Aligarh, Allahabad and Agra the examination is divided into M A previous and M A final, the previous examination being taken at the end of the first year and the final examination at the end of the second year. The total number of papers for the M A examination except at Mysore varies from six to eight. Banaras, Bombay, Delhi, Patna and Ponna universities have certain papers where a candidate is given some option. At Delhi and Bombay, intensive specialization in some branch of economics is favoured. The Patna University allows a student the option of offering a thesis in lieu of two papers. There is a compulsory viva voce examination at Allahabad and Mysore. In the latter, a candidate may take the M A degree either by papers or by thesis.

At Bombay and Delhi universities there are separate full-fledged teaching departments for postgraduate studies in economics. The Bombay University economics M.A. course comprises eight papers four of which are compulsory: theory of value, theory of money, economics of planning and public finance. The students have to take four other papers in economics, two each in any of the following seven subjects: agricultural economics, industrial economics (including industrial labour), economic development and fluctuations, international economics, economics of public utilities and transport, demography, and economics. At Bombay University a student may also take the M A degree by submitting a thesis. During recent years, particularly after the institution of the Ph D degree, the number of students offering a thesis for the M A degree is fast decreasing. Most students prefer to take up research after completing the M A examination by papers and getting a good grounding in economics.

At the Delhi School of Economics, the M A. course consists of six papers in economics, four of which are compulsory advanced economic theory, international economics, theory of money and employment, theory and character of economic development. The additional two papers must be written on one of the following groups

Group A—Rural economics international agricultural economics, Indian rural economy

Group B—Industrial economics economics of modern industry, Indian industries and their problems

Group C—Labour economics labour organization and welfare in India, labour organization and welfare abroad

Group D—Banking theory and practice of banking, problems of Indian banking

Group E—Economic planning theory of economic planning, problems of economic planning in India

M A Honours

At Andhra University there is an M A honours course of two years duration after B A honours. This degree is mainly obtained by thesis, plus one paper on the subject relating to the thesis

Commerce Courses

We have not been able to obtain similar information on the importance of economics in the commerce courses of various universities, but we may take the course of Bombay University as an illustration. The intermediate commerce course of this university consists of the following papers: English, commercial correspondence and composition, composition in a modern Indian language or French or German or an additional paper in English, elements of economics, forms of economic organization (with special reference to India and the United Kingdom), accountancy, secretarial practice or insurance mathematics

Thus there are two compulsory papers in economics. The B Com course consists of the following papers: English, principles of economics I, principles of economics II, modern economic development, business organization, mercantile law, statistics and scientific methods, one subject among the following (three papers in each): accounting and auditing, actuarial science, banking, economics of cotton, public finance and administration, statistics, transport

Thus the maximum number of papers in economics that a candidate can take in the B Com course is seven, and the minimum four. In April 1950 the M Com course, which had consisted partly of a thesis and partly of papers, was revised and the student has, now, either to submit a thesis or to appear for an examination consisting of the following papers

Group A—Compulsory subjects: public economics, organized markets, organizations of trade and transport, corporation finance

Group B—Voluntary subjects actuarial science—four papers or any two of the following subgroups (a) economics of agriculture, co operation and rural development, (b) organization of industries, labour administration, (c) foreign exchanges, international banking.

The other courses usually include the teaching of elementary principles of economics and some special branches thereof, with emphasis according to the needs of the faculty. For instance, in engineering the emphasis will naturally be on the cost side, in Agricultural courses, it will be on rural economics¹. In all these cases, the value of a firm grasp of first principles is increasingly recognized.

Authorities deciding Organization of Teaching

Usually in the universities the courses of teaching are decided by the Board of Studies and the Academic Council. In the first-mentioned body teachers in the particular subject have an important place. The Academic Council is also composed mainly of teachers, drawn from various subjects. Thus teachers play a predominant part in deciding the courses of their respective subjects. The main obstacles to rationalization and improvement of courses, have been the heads of institutions interested mainly in administration. New, more intensive and varied courses mean larger staff and therefore greater expenditure. The finances of most of the private educational institutions are in an unsatisfactory condition and there is therefore little enthusiasm for new proposals. Universities themselves have not tended to look with favour upon proposals involving additional expenditure. While it cannot be said that all available resources have been fully utilized, clearly, any great improvement in the teaching of economics will have to await an improvement in the financial condition of these teaching bodies.

Methods of Testing Competence

Competence is generally decided by examinations held by the colleges or the universities. At the end of the first year arts or commerce, the college holds an examination, the university holds intermediate arts and commerce, B A and B Com and M A. and M Com examinations. Promotion depends entirely or very largely on the performance of the candidates at these examinations, although the affiliating universities have very little means of checking the objectivity of judgment of teachers in different colleges. It is surprising, however, that even teaching and residential universities, which could have adopted a different and more scientific system of tests, have stuck to this method. At most of the examinations, a large number of students appear,

1 The following list of the papers in economics for Madras University technical courses may be of interest—engineering, engineering economics, agriculture agricultural economics, technology (B.Sc.), industrial organization, home science (B.Sc.) rural economics and social economics.

often from different places, making any systematic viva voce difficult. The undue importance of these examinations has tended to make students neglect their daily studies and concentrate on reading only at the time of the examinations. In spite of the low percentage of marks needed for passing these examinations—usually 30 to 35—the percentage of candidates who pass these examinations is generally less than 50. Even when judged by the narrow criteria of preparation for written examinations, for which it has been devised, the success of the present system has been dubious, and the waste and frustration involved great.

Analysis of Curricula of Economic Studies¹

Combinations of Subjects

Generally speaking, at the B A stage there are no compulsory subjects except English, and sometimes the mother tongue. A student wishing to specialize in economics is usually under no compulsion to take any specific subjects other than economics. Sometimes an indirect inducement is given to him to choose other social sciences by bracketing them with economics papers, and classifying them as economics. For instance, at Bombay, a B A economics student may choose political science or comparative social institutions as one out of the three required subjects in economics. In the Punjab University, for one of his honours papers in economics, a student must choose from (a) political science and Indian administration, (b) the economic history of India from the time of Akbar to the present day, and (c) elements of statistics. On the more important question of what combinations are generally chosen by Indian students no definite information is available.² Research students are usually allowed to select any special subjects. Table (h) in Appendix VII gives an analysis of subjects selected by M A and Ph D research students of the Bombay University School of Economics and Sociology since its inception. The importance of mathematics has yet been little recognized and there are very few B A students taking economics honours who go in for mathematics. A student good at mathematics is apt to go in for science rather than for the arts courses. The arts student has the option of choosing between mathematics and subjects like world history or logic at the beginning of his college career, when he has not yet decided what subjects he will take for his B A, and has no clear conception of the relation of mathematics to these subjects. The result is that many of the students deciding on intensive training in economics will have abandoned mathematics two years earlier, and will have absolutely no knowledge either of analytical geometry or calculus, and only an elementary knowledge of

1 See Appendix IV for lists of textbooks and books recommended in some selected universities.

2 See Appendix VII which gives statistical information about the combinations offered by students in the Bombay University.

algebra. Even good students seem too lazy to take up mathematics at this stage and to fill in the gaps, especially as there are no facilities for doing so. Where there is a choice between taking a few papers in economics and a more intensive course, the latter seems to be preferred. In 1950, out of the 1,532 students who offered economics at the B.A. examination of Bombay University, 857 took the honours course in economics, and at the M.A. out of 122, 37 took all their eight papers in economics.

It has not been possible to collect any detailed information regarding the subjects selected, from among the economics papers at different universities. We have already referred to the options exercised by the B.A. students at Bombay. An analysis of the options exercised by the M.A. students studying in 1950-51 in the postgraduate Economics Department of Bombay University is given in Appendix VII. A small percentage of students prefer to go in for econometrics. In the commerce courses, up to the B.Com. stage this subject is less often chosen.

Mathematics and Economics

At all universities except Mysore, Andhra and Lucknow, arts students taking economics are not required to study either statistics or mathematics, though at Aligarh some instruction in statistics is given in a course on the principles of economics, for the B.A.¹ At Lucknow, a paper on statistics is compulsory for students appearing for the B.A. honours (two years') examination. At Andhra, business statistics is compulsory for all students taking the B.A. honours economics course while mathematical economics and statistical computations are compulsory for all B.A. honours economics students taking mathematical economics. It is, however, sometimes possible for an economics student to take one or two papers in statistics and mathematics at the B.A. stage.² At the M.A. stage, since all the papers usually have to be on economics and allied social sciences, it is not possible for the student to combine economics with papers in mathematics or mathematical statistics. In some of the universities, however, the M.A. economics course provides for one or more papers in statistics and in mathematical economics. It seems that if the course is not difficult, students at the higher stages realise the value of statistics. For instance, at the M.A. in Aligarh, statistics is optional with economic history, nearly 90 per cent of the students preferred statistics in 1949-50. Mathematical economics is still not popular for the reasons already given. In general, the mathematical equipment of arts students is poor, and they find

1. In Mysore a student taking the B.A. honours economics course has to take a paper in statistics at the end of the second year. He has also the option of selecting mathematical economics (two papers) as his minor subject instead of Indian history (two papers).

2. In the B.Sc. examination at Mysore a student can take economics with mathematical economics and statistics.

it difficult even to understand elementary graphs or elementary algebraic methods, much less calculus. The mathematical equipment of the teachers in economics is also poor in most cases, and they are not able to introduce their students to the elements of mathematics needed in their general economics courses.

In the commerce course the importance of statistics is more generally recognized. In the B Com course at Bombay University, statistics and scientific method is a compulsory paper. There is, however, no provision for mathematical economics in commerce courses. As against the arts students, the commerce students suffer from the disadvantage of not being able to acquire a good grounding in any of the other social sciences.

Hours devoted to Teaching

At the intermediate stage usually two to four hours a week are devoted to one paper completed in a year¹. The practice is the same for the B A course. For the M A, the facilities for lectures vary widely. Where teaching is inter collegiate or by teachers mainly engaged in undergraduate teaching the tuition is irregular. Where the universities themselves provide for postgraduate teaching or where the teaching institutes specialize in postgraduate teaching, lectures are given regularly. The number of lectures per paper depends on the teaching institute and the university. Some institutions take the view that for postgraduate classes, lectures are not an important part of studies, others emphasize lectures in the same way as undergraduate institutions do.

Place of Textbooks

In most cases the teaching at lower stages is governed by prescribed textbooks². At higher stages books are recommended. In no case have teachers great freedom to take liberties with the course, which may have been framed some years ago, to make it suit changing times and their own ideas on the subject. In federative universities where the number of affiliated institutions is fairly large, such freedom is hardly possible. In teaching universities it is possible to allow greater liberties with the course, provided that teachers have an important say at the examinations. Only a few institutions avail themselves of this liberty.

Knowledge of Foreign Languages

Knowledge of books in any foreign language except English is not considered essential for students of economics. Andhra is

1 Bombay University has laid down with a view to ensuring adequate instruction in the various subjects a certain assignment of periods as a standard to which every affiliated college should conform. At the intermediate stage, for each paper there should be instruction for at least three periods per week (a period being equal to 45 minutes). At the B A stage also the minimum requirements are three periods per paper per week.

2 Appendix IV gives the names of books recommended at various courses in a few selected universities.

the only university where knowledge of French is essential for the B A honours degree. One compulsory paper in that language is set at the end of the first year of the honours course. At Lucknow, students have to appear for a paper in German for the Ph D degree. Since teaching at the college stage and sometimes even at the school stage generally is done in English, all students are familiar with English. Only a few know any other foreign language. Generally in the postgraduate science courses some knowledge of either French or German is required and students have to pass a translation test before they are allowed to appear for the regular examination. No such conditions are laid down for economics courses. As a result the number of teachers or students who can read works on economics in a foreign language other than English is extremely limited.

With the acceptance of Hindi as the national language and the growing desire to change the medium of instruction in the universities from English to a local language, the time is not distant when the position of English will be different from what it now is in Indian universities. It is likely, however, to continue as an important and perhaps compulsory second language.

Methods of Teaching

Importance of Lectures and Seminars

Lectures are the most important and often the sole method of imparting instruction. There is as a rule no scope for discussion in the classes and it is rare that students bring up their difficulties in the classes. One unfortunate result of this system is the wide gulf that the students find between the methods to which they are accustomed in secondary schools and those in the colleges. Some well conducted teaching institutions provide for regular seminars in the B A classes. They are meant as meeting grounds for a free discussion on papers prepared on given topics by students. They tend however to become rather informal lectures or essay writing periods. When the seminars are voluntary, lectures by outsiders which allow of little informal or relevant discussion, occupy a large part of the time. Attendance at these seminars is thin, especially when the examination approaches. Where they are compulsory, the number of students is so large that any atmosphere of informality and discussion seems to be difficult to create. In postgraduate institutions, however, where the size of the class may be smaller, it is possible to hold seminars, in the real sense of the term.

Individual Teaching

The tutorial system as known in Oxford or Cambridge does not exist in Indian universities.¹ In recent years there has been acute

¹ The importance of tutorials and of such other formal methods of teaching is gradually being recognized in the various universities. At Poona and Andhra performance of tutorial work has been made compulsory at the

(Continued on next page)

dissatisfaction with the present methods of teaching and in many cases attempts are being made to adopt less formal systems. The students are sometimes divided into groups of 15 to 20, the teacher meeting each group once a week and discussing their difficulties. In other cases, an attempt is made to create an informal atmosphere even in the larger classes. At best these are inadequate approximations to the tutorial system, which gives the student personal contact with his teacher and where the latter can devote his full attention to the individual pupil.

Extent of Written Work

Very little written work is expected from the students in most institutions. The class in economics is generally large and the ratio of teachers to students is small.¹ Seldom, therefore, are essays written in the class and then examined and discussed by the teachers. *Occasionally essays are required but they are corrected and returned in a formal way, so that the student is apt not to take them seriously.* Good essays take time to prepare and do not pay proportionate dividends at the examination. To obviate this tendency, essay writing has been made compulsory in some cases and some institutions have tried to ensure that these essays be taken seriously by ruling that students will not be eligible for the examinations unless teachers certify that the essays have been written to their satisfaction. This system largely depends on how strict the teacher is likely to be, and it can by no means ensure that good students put forth their best efforts. The solution may be to make these essays and classwork an integral part of the examinations, but this can only be done at the teaching universities.

Field Work

New methods such as mechanical or visual aids are little used in the teaching of economics. Visits to factories, etc., do not usually form an essential part of arts and commerce courses. At Mysore University, however, students in the commerce courses are taken on a tour of the various industrial centres of India. In some diplomas and applied courses, also, visits to factories and field work are a necessary pre-requisite for admission to the examination.

(Continued from previous page)

undergraduate stage. At Punjab and Delhi universities there is provision for tutorials at the M.A. course also. In the honours class of the South Indian universities the number of students in each class is limited and the teachers in a position to devote greater attention to the individual difficulties of students. In some universities seminars are a regular feature in the honours class.

¹ The average strength of a class for the B.A. and the M.A. courses ranges from 60 to 100, in some places it is 150.

Recruitment of Teachers

Requirements for Recruitment

The minimum requirements for the teacher's post at the graduate stage is either a first class or second class honours and a good M A degree. For the M A classes, however, some universities insist on research qualification or teaching experience. It is seldom that people with experience in other fields come to the teaching profession. The flow has usually been in the opposite direction, and recently, on a large scale. The reasons for this are largely to be found in the pre-war low salaries which the war time and post-war increase in prices have further decreased in real terms, and the comparatively lower social status of the teaching profession in a society where the administrator, the politician and the few rich have greater prestige. The high traditional status of the teacher (*Guru*) in Indian society suffered considerably during the last hundred years when the modern universities grew up, that situation has not been improved since independence, in fact the problem is daily becoming more acute. In a few cases outside the economics faculty, some professional persons are associated with teaching, either in an honorary capacity or as part-time workers. For instance, a number of reputed surgeons and physicians give lectures in medical colleges, in the law colleges some eminent practitioners are found willing to impart training. In economics, however, this has not been the case, as professional economists outside the teaching line are rare.

Methods of Recruitment

The methods of recruitment of teachers vary widely with the types of educational institutions. In colleges conducted by private societies recruitment of the teachers is done by the Managing Committee or its subcommittees. These committees are composed mainly of non-academic men influential in public life, and usually in a position to collect funds. The only academic man in the committee is the Principal, whose influence depends on his personality and his insistence on academic standards. Personal factors and influence play, not infrequently, a predominant role in selection. In government institutions, selection is made by the Public Services Commission, which serves as the recruiting agency for all government services, above a certain grade. The members of this commission are impartial men with a wide background, but they are not experts and it becomes very difficult for them to choose between two economics experts. In the universities, selection is usually made by *ad hoc* committees of experts appointed to recruit for each specific post. In some universities, as in Bombay, the procedure for the selection of these committees is laid down in the University Act. The recommendations of these committees are not binding, but they are usually accepted.

Foreign Teachers

Up to the end of the first world war there were a few foreign teachers employed for teaching economics, especially in government colleges. Now, except in institutions run by foreign missionary societies, foreign teachers are seldom employed. A substantial percentage of the teachers in senior positions have received their training abroad, mostly in England, either in London or at Cambridge. In the Bombay art and commerce colleges, out of the 52 teachers in economics, 7 have been abroad for training. Many institutions would welcome a system of visiting professors from foreign universities. But none, with the exception of the Delhi School of Economics, have been able to put this idea into practice.

Research and Institutions for Research in Economics*General Remarks*

There has been a great divergence between teaching and research in the universities. Undergraduate teaching in economics is mainly done by people who have no interest in research, nor are research qualifications generally regarded as essential for teachers, except in research institutions. Even at the postgraduate stage many of the teachers have no research training or experience. In postgraduate institutions where research work is done, teaching, along with its other concomitants, forms an essential part of the work of the staff¹. Specialized research institutions where there are no regular teaching duties, or where teaching duties are ancillary, are few. Perhaps Madras is the only university which has a department of economics devoted exclusively to research.

The other research institutions in economics are mainly government departments. In various government offices—the Bureau of Economics and Statistics, the Economic Adviser's office and the Reserve Bank of India—research work in economics is carried out. Such work, however, may often be for immediate administrative requirements or to provide background for making policy decisions. Consultation between such departments and the universities is casual and mainly depends on the relations between the top personnel of the two institutions. There are no well-defined conventions or machinery for interchange of information and opinion. Generally speaking, the government's attitude to research has been showing a gradual improvement. Discussion with or obtaining information from government departments is no longer as difficult as it used to be, though there is great room for improvement. This change in attitude,

¹ The various universities have different rules regarding the maximum number of hours of teaching for postgraduate teachers. It ranges from 21 hours per week to 3 or 4 as in the School of Economics and Sociology, Bombay University.

however, has been less radical in economics than in the natural sciences, where the government institutions have come to look upon the universities as their friends and allies in a common cause

Although almost all the Indian universities have provision for a research degree, such as the Ph D in economics, very few have the necessary staff for guidance, or the library facilities. Most students who want to pursue research in economic problems go to the few research institutions which have adequate facilities and provide guidance in research. The oldest and largest of such institutions is the School of Economics and Sociology, University of Bombay.

School of Economics and Sociology, Bombay

This institution was started in March 1917 as a result of the correspondence between the University of Bombay and the Government of India which held the view 'that arrangements for the organized study of economics and allied social problems in India could be made and Bombay with its busy industrial and commercial life which was largely the result of Indian enterprise and ability was peculiarly well placed for an experiment of this kind'. In order to obtain the services of qualified persons with research training in economics, Mr C N Vakil, who was then on the staff of Wilson College, Bombay, was sent to London for training in research methods in economics, in July 1919. At first the Department of Economics consisted of one professor and one assistant professor. In 1943 only was provision made for the creation of posts for two lecturers in economics. Thanks to the donation of Rs 100,000 from the Bai Vijai Jivanlal Panalal Trust, an agricultural economics section was started in 1945. The Government of Bombay also agreed to assist this section financially. The agricultural economics section has now three regional areas of the province, each in charge of a member of the staff. This section consists of one reader, two lecturers and three investigators.

In order to encourage research work in this school, the University of Bombay has instituted scholarships and fellowships. From 1943 onwards provision was made for the addition of two posts of research assistants. The Ph D degree was instituted in 1935. The growth of the school is evident from the fact that the total number of students rose from 11 in 1921 to 87 in 1931, 148 in 1941 and is more than 400 today. The total number of theses for the M A degree in economics prepared in the school from 1924 to 1950 is 58, the total number of these submitted for the Ph D degree since its inception in 1935 is 30. The total number of students at present preparing their doctorate theses in economics is 29. The school is giving facilities to a few Fulbright scholars from the U S A.

Some of the research work done in the school has been published. More recently the University of Bombay has undertaken to publish its own series in economics which contains some of the best research work done in the school. The school has produced a number of brilliant students some of whom occupy distinguished positions in different walks of life, including the academic profession.

The school also undertakes departmental research. The Department of Economics organizes research on current problems with the help of research assistants and some students. It also conducts research on behalf of various governments. Recently it completed a comprehensive inquiry into the economic consequences of the partition of India. A socio-economic survey of prohibition in rural areas was undertaken in 1949-50 by the department on behalf of the Government of Bombay. The department is at present engaged on the economic survey of Saurashtra at the instance of the Government of Saurashtra. The agricultural economics section undertook an inquiry into the obstacles to the 'grow more food' campaign. It is also engaged in an inquiry into the working of regulated markets in the Bombay State on behalf of the Government of Bombay. These efforts provide a valuable training for the research students.

The school has a well-equipped library (30,000 volumes) and subscribes to almost all the important journals in economics, both foreign and Indian. It maintains close contact with the Indian Society of Agricultural Economics which was started in the year 1939 with a view to advance research in agricultural economics problems of the country.

Until very recently space limitations hampered the further growth of the school. The university premises are now being expanded and it is expected that there will be further room for development of the library and other facilities. The number of students seeking admission is increasing every year and some have to be turned away. Many come from outside the Bombay State.

Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona

The Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona, was founded in 1930 on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Servants of India Society, thanks to the generous donation of over Rs. 100,000 to the Society by Rao Bahadur R.R. Kale of Satara. The objective of the institute is study and research related to the various economic and political problems of India and the training of workers for such study and research—such study being scientific in character and to be concerned chiefly with problems of immediate practical import. The Gokhale Institute has been concentrating specially on local surveys. The institute has specialized in rural and urban surveys of Poona and neighbouring areas. Thanks to a grant by the trustees of the

Sir Dorahjee Tata Trust, a section in agricultural economics was established in 1947, the objective being a study of the economy of those parts of Bombay-Deccan which are most liable to drought and famine.

The institute also provided teaching facilities for students appearing for the M.A. examination of Bombay University until 1948, when the Poona University was created. The institute normally had about 60 students enrolled for the M.A. degree and about 16 for the Ph.D. degree. About 10 theses have been so far prepared in the institute for the Ph.D. At present the staff of the institute consists of one director, one assistant to the director and two other assistants.

The Gokhale Institute also undertakes research inquiries on behalf of government or private bodies. For example the institute assisted in the National Sample Survey initiated by the Government of India last year. At the instance of the Institute of Pacific Relations, the Gokhale School has undertaken a study of the rise of the business class in India. The institute has edited or published nearly 20 books dealing with various aspects of urban and rural economy of India.

Delhi School of Economics, Delhi

The Delhi School of Economics for advanced teaching and research in economics was started in 1949 under the auspices of the University of Delhi. At first the department had only one professor but the school now has an independent governing body, with the vice-chancellor of the university as its *ex-officio* chairman. It performs the normal functions of a department of economics, i.e. organizing and conducting postgraduate teaching in economics with the help of its own staff and select teachers drawn from the constituent colleges of the university and supervising research work leading to the Ph.D. degree of the university.

The Delhi School depends for its research finances on special grants from the Government of India, state governments and private individuals and institutions. It is willing to undertake *ad hoc* investigations at the request of the government or private bodies, in addition to the individual research projects undertaken by the members of the staff. Very recently the Delhi School undertook an *ad hoc* investigation into the food situation in Bihar. At the instance of the Institute of Pacific Relations and the Indian Council of World Affairs, a study on the structure of Asian economy has been undertaken by the school. In response to a request from the European League for Economic Co-operation, the school has undertaken the preparation of data on India and European Economic Co-operation. It has also invited distinguished foreign economists and experts to join the school as visiting professors for short periods. Among the distinguished economists who have acted as visiting professors may be mentioned, Professor

and Mrs Hicks, Dr Cairncross, Professor Condiffe and Professor Maurice Dobb. The library of the institute is being expanded rapidly. Arrangements have been made with the Indian Statistical Institute for running an economic statistics unit. At present there are 18 students preparing for the Ph D degree.

The Department of Economics, Madras

The Department of Economics was instituted in 1915 with the object of stimulating research on problems of Indian economics. Dr Gilbert Slater was in charge of the department till his resignation in 1921. The post of lecturer in statistics was first created in 1930 and was attached to the Department of Economics till 1941, when statistics was constituted into a separate department. The Department of Economics in Madras is a research department. The members of the department have contributed a number of important books to the literature on Indian economic problems.

Teaching Load in Indian Universities

The Terms

The number of teaching weeks in the year, that is the effective length of the academic year, extends to anything from 24 to 30 weeks. As a rule, the academic year is divided into two terms. In Bombay the first term begins in the middle of June and extends to the middle of October with a recess of two weeks during August. The second term extends from the middle of November to the middle of March with a recess during Christmas. In some of the other universities, the arrangement for the terms is somewhat different mainly based on local climatic conditions.

Number of Lectures

For the purpose of appreciating the teaching load it would be desirable to make a distinction between professors and lecturers working in affiliating colleges and those working directly under the university. Among those working directly under the university, a distinction has to be made between those universities who have teaching functions both for undergraduate and postgraduate classes and others who confine their work only to postgraduate classes.

So far as the colleges are concerned on an average the number of lectures that a teacher is expected to give varies from 12 to 16 per week. Teachers in economics are expected in many cases to give lectures in other subjects such as history or politics or civics. In universities where both undergraduate and postgraduate work has to be carried on by the same teachers, the work is almost equally heavy, on an average 10 to 12 lectures a week is the minimum. However, university teachers are allowed to confine themselves to their own subjects and would not ordinarily be asked to teach other subjects.

In universities or institutions for postgraduate work only, the teaching load is less heavy. For example, in the School of Economics and Sociology of the University of Bombay, it is the practice that each teacher has no more than four lectures a week, in some cases even less.

Examination Work

The amount of time spent by a teacher in examining work varies, junior teachers, as a rule, are not appointed university examiners unless they have had sufficient experience. On an average a large number of college and university teachers who are appointed examiners are required to devote anything between four and six weeks of their vacation time for examination work. In addition to the paid examining work undertaken by the teachers for the various universities, the teacher in a college has also to do similar work in respect of the college examinations. Furthermore, he has also to spend some of his time without extra remuneration, for supervision of students at the time of the examinations.

Salary Scales

Appendix VI gives the level of salaries of teachers of different categories in Indian universities and colleges. These scales were in operation in most cases before the war. The only change made in recent years because of rise in prices is that a small dearness allowance is granted in most cases. It is either a small percentage of the salary or a lump sum which ordinarily does not exceed Rs 100 a month. Compared with earnings in other professions, the remuneration of university and college teachers was lower before the war. Whereas the general price level in the country has risen nearly five times, the income of teachers has remained almost stationary, an unenviable economic position.

It is rare to find instances of government departments and other public bodies offering paid work to university and college teachers. The employers discourage any work of this nature. In some cases, if an employing authority allows a teacher to do such work it demands a share, say 50 per cent of the remuneration.

Administrative Work

In most of the colleges, administrative duties fall to the Principal, who has usually academic work as a professor as well. The senior professor in the college is usually appointed Principal. In the universities, the heads of departments, generally professors, have some administrative work in addition to their own academic duties. In some postgraduate institutions the Professor in charge of administration is designated a director. As the head of an institution, the director has to attend meetings of several university bodies, such as the Academic Council, Boards of Studies, Syndicate, and the Senate. The performance of these functions allows him very little spare time for research.

Owing to the combination of circumstances referred to above, the time and energy available to a teacher to undertake research

is meagre in the majority of cases. Most employing authorities take the view that the work of a professor or a lecturer is merely to teach, research work is a luxury which it is not their business to encourage. The quality of the training imparted to the students thus tends to suffer. Only 10 institutions which concentrate on postgraduate work and where the amount of teaching work is limited, can teachers really undertake research.

On account of the low financial incentives offered to the teachers for regular work of lecturing, some of them resort to private tutorial and coaching work in order to supplement their regular incomes. Some universities try to place restrictions on these private tuitions, but it is difficult to control them effectively. Private tutorial work, therefore, often becomes detrimental to the regular work of the teachers. The solution probably lies in increasing the financial incentives for regular work rather than in preventing teachers from accepting private tuitions.

Incentives for Research Work

In view of the prevailing conditions in the country, unless the number of professors and lecturers is greatly increased and the teaching work per head is greatly reduced, the necessary prerequisite for encouraging research will not exist. As this may not be practicable on financial grounds, the alternative would be to gradually lessen the load of teaching and other work on professors and lecturers, and at the same time give incentives for research work. The incentives may take the form of rapid promotions, facilities for publications of approved research work, facilities of study leave abroad, say once in four years, and considerable reduction in teaching load of those who have proved their capacity for doing good research work.

Conclusions

Popularity of Economics and Problems of Development

In recent years economics has attained great popularity among university students. It is the favourite among the optional subjects for students in the arts degree courses, and the number of students taking up economics in postgraduate courses is also on the increase. The number of students willing to pursue research in economics is also rising, and the research institutions have to disappoint a number of applicants as the available facilities are limited. At the graduate stage, the increasing popularity of economics is partly due to the belief among students that a course in economics would offer the best prospects for employment. It is also true that a number of students take up economics at the graduate stage in the belief that it is relatively an easy course. There is, nevertheless, a growing realization of the importance of the knowledge of economics for an understanding and interpretation of the current trends in everyday life. At the higher stages, economics is being recognized as a valuable discipline of the modern

Throughout 1952-1954 economics continued to be the most popular among the social sciences. In so far as teaching facilities and methods of instruction are concerned, no significant change can be mentioned. Paucity of funds has stood in the way of the development of informal methods of instruction. The work load on teachers continues to be heavy, nor do salary scales show any improvement. The central government has established a University Grants Commission with a view to assisting the universities in the improvement of teaching conditions. The impact of the Grants Commission on the working of the universities is not yet to be felt. Conditions might, however, show some improvements in the years to come.

Extent of Specialization

Only recently has due importance been given to the need for a specialized study of economics. The dilemma of under versus over specialization has therefore not become as serious a problem as it has in other countries. The Indian universities until recently have insisted upon a liberal system of education, in the sense that there has been no special emphasis on any one subject. At the graduate stage in most of the universities a student has to take up two or three optional subjects among which are included economics, history, politics, psychology, geography, sociology, mathematics, etc. One important reason why specialization in the arts subjects has not yet found much favour among the students is that it involves a narrowing of the range of opportunities of employment. In the academic profession, most of the colleges in the Indian universities have tended to give preference to a person who is in a position to teach other subjects in addition to economics, so as to make their limited finances go as far as possible. The economics lecturer in an Indian college is for instance expected to be able to lecture on politics, history, civics and so on. Those who intensively specialize in economics must therefore seek jobs in the specialized research institutions or in special government departments where, unfortunately, the opportunities are limited.

Unless the market for the services of specialists expands we can see little prospects of any improvement in the extent of specialization. The attitude of the government is thus crucial in promoting or retarding such studies. Specialization in economics may take two forms, firstly, an increase in the number of students who can stay at the universities and continue specialization on problems of theory, and secondly, an increase in the number of students who can get intensive training on specific fields such as transport economics, industrial organization etc. The latter depends upon the establishment of a number of special chairs.

Although the central and the state government have been following a liberal policy as regards grants and aids in respect of specialized institutions in natural and applied sciences, the importance of encouraging specialization in the various branches

of economics has not yet been fully recognized. This applies not merely to government attitude regarding economics, but also regarding other social sciences. A cumulative consequence of all these factors is that it is a common tendency among good students in Indian universities to choose the natural science courses or professional courses like medical, engineering, law, etc. On an average, science graduates stand better chances of securing good jobs than graduates who take up courses in social sciences. A student who takes up courses in natural sciences has also greater chances of obtaining high marks in the Administrative Services Examination and a place in the public service is prized as a career by most educated young men.

Careers chosen by Economics Graduates

Thanks to the existence of a few specialized institutions dealing with economics, it has been possible to produce a number of trained research students. But most of the students who conduct investigations on different problems are not always given the opportunity to utilize their knowledge in the fields in which they specialize. A random survey of the present careers of the students who took their postgraduate degree by research in the Bombay School revealed that most of the students were either absorbed into the academic profession as professors or lecturers in mofussil colleges or were taken up in the different departments of the state or central governments. Very few of these have been able to maintain their interest in economics or in their specialized branch. Very few of the mofussil colleges can provide the necessary leisure and library facilities, with the result that professors or lecturers generally have not been in a position to refresh their knowledge of the subject and keep in touch with the latest advance in the technique of analysis. Thus on all counts the value of the student's work in the study of higher economics or of one of its specialized branches is often lost to the country, let alone to the students themselves.

Defects in Educational System

The defects of the Indian education system are widely recognized and various leading universities and educationists are trying their best to remove them. The main difficulty is lack of necessary funds. The quality of research done in the various institutions depends upon the ability of the student to work unhampered. But in a country like India research is considered more or less as a luxury which very few students can afford. Moreover, a student after finishing his work for the doctorate degree does not stand any better chance of getting a good job. Many of the students who can afford to do research prefer to go abroad for foreign degrees as there is still a premium on foreign degrees for employment both in government departments and private employment. High-quality research requires high qualified specialists, but very few

institutions can afford to keep on their staff a large number of specialists

Importance of Library Facilities

The quality of work done depends also upon the existence of adequate library facilities. Information collected at the end of 1948 revealed the following figures about the number of books on economics in some of the universities: Annamalai, 6,100, Aligarh, 1,546, Delhi, 1,500, Madras, 9,580, Travancore, 4,175, Bombay, 30,000.

The position must have improved since. The new school at Delhi has expanded its library facilities throughout 1952-54. Very few among the Indian universities subscribe however to technical economic journals such as the *Review of Economic Studies*, *Econometrica*, *Manchester School*, etc. Journal reading is not a habit among advanced students. In many universities there has been no systematic effort to obtain complete collections of important journals and to keep them up to date. Furthermore, arrangements for making government publications available are not satisfactory and this stands in the way of research on current problems. Thus once again the importance of adequate finance as well as the need for a change in the attitude towards economics, of the government as well as of the private employers, are again underlined.

Importance of Economic Theory

A healthy trend in the study of economics in Indian universities is the attention now being paid to the need for imparting a sound instruction in economic theory. Formerly there was a general belief that economic theory as taught in the West would be of very little assistance in its application to Indian economic problems. This resulted in the creation of a gulf between the teaching of economic theory and that of Indian economic problems. The study of Indian economic problems tended to be a descriptive study having little to do with the techniques of analysis developed in economic theory. The gap to which we have alluded did incalculable harm to the study of economics in India. The students of economic theory tended to be discouraged and those students who were pursuing problems of pure theory had to work in an uncongenial atmosphere.

Recent Developments in Research, Economic Planning and Teaching Research and Planning The main drawback in regard to development of research continues to be the lack of advanced training facilities and uncertainty about employment prospects of research workers. Since the preparation of this report, in 1950-52 there has been some improvement in this field and thanks to the establishment of the National Planning Commission, the importance of advanced training in economics is being gradually recognized. The Planning Commission has constituted a Research

Programmes Committee composed of leading university professors, with a view to encouraging research in economics in a number of selected problems. This has given a new impetus to applied research in a number of universities and colleges. The departments of the central as well as state governments are also gradually realizing the need for equipping themselves with competent research departments in economics. The employment prospects, therefore, have to some extent improved.

However the need for development of a few selected centres for advanced training and research by means of special grants from the central government or from other sources remains acute. The universities concerned still do not have adequate resources in this respect and unless the central government or the state governments concerned take a sympathetic attitude in the development of economics, it may be difficult to expand substantially the existing facilities.

In order to associate university teachers with the actual work of the government, the National Planning Commission has established a panel of economists, the objective being to allow professional economists to take part in the formation of government policy. But more opportunities in this respect are necessary; particularly, it should take the form of appointment of university teachers for short periods in key positions in the departments of government dealing with economic affairs. A workable system has yet to be evolved, which would bring a certain freshness and objectivity of outlook to the departments and at the same time enable the university teachers to have some experience of the actual ways by which government works. There has been some improvement in the employment opportunities afforded by commercial bodies and private associations. Nevertheless, economics graduates and research workers are still forced to depend too much upon the availability of employment opportunities in the government.

New Courses Another important event of significance to the development of economics in India is the institution of an advanced refresher course to be held in Poona between July-September 1955, with the aid of funds provided by the International Economic Association and the Government of India. The Indian Economic Association is in charge of the local organization. A number of foreign professors from abroad have been invited to deliver lectures during the course. The different universities in India are sending the representatives. A number of Indian economists will also be associated with the course. It is expected that the advanced refresher course will provide a much needed impetus towards co-operation between scholars in India and abroad.

An important step in the development of professional courses in economics and allied subjects has been the institution of diploma courses in business management in a number of universities during the last four years. The lead in this respect came

from the All India Council of Technical Education. It is unfortunate, however, that graduates in economics and commerce have been excluded from courses in industrial administration for which adequate training facilities are also being created. With the expansion of the activities of the public sector in India, industrial administration is going to acquire greater importance. Nobody can deny the importance of adequate training in economics for those who are to man the industrial enterprises in future. It is hoped that the authorities concerned will revise their point of view in this respect.

Professional association and economic periodicals The development of teaching of economics in India could certainly be accelerated, and some steps are being taken in this respect. The Indian Economic Association has taken up the responsibility for running a quarterly. The first issue of the *Indian Economic Journal* came out in July 1953, and it has been possible to maintain a high standard of articles and regularity of publication. The *Journal* has received good response both from India and abroad. The Indian Economic Association, however, continues to be in financial difficulties. A new drive for increasing the membership of the association was launched and the association has now 530 members on its roll. The Delhi School of Economics has also been able to make good progress with its bi-annual periodical, the *Indian Economic Review*. The *Indian Journal of Economics*, which was formerly subsidized by the Indian Economic Association, continues to be managed by Allahabad University.

Recommendations

The following suggestions are made for the improvement of the present standard of teaching and research in economics in India, with due reference to the growing requirements of the country under its changed status, new environment, and the policy towards a welfare state.

1. The development of a few selected centres for advanced training and research in economics by special grants from the Central Government and other sources. Among the centres suitable for such development are Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Delhi and Allahabad.

Some plans in this direction have been under consideration in recent years.

2. A substantial increase in the number of university teachers in economics so that specialization may be made possible. Reduction in the volume of teaching work to enable the teachers to do research work in their special field.
3. Adequate remuneration to teachers so that they may be induced to stay in scientific work and not be attracted by other opportunities.
4. Greater freedom to teachers both regarding the courses to be followed and the books to be used.

- 5 Rationalization of the present syllabuses in most of the universities to achieve the maximum uniformity. Revision of the syllabuses and books from time to time to keep them up to date
- 6 Greater opportunities for teachers in economics in India to come together for discussion of problems and exchange of views
- 7 Improvement of the Journal of the Indian Economic Association, which should be the medium for publication of original contributions by teachers of economics in India
- 8 Facilities for teachers to go abroad, say once in four years. For junior teachers, one year's study leave and for senior teachers six months' study leave, at intervals of four years would go a long way towards bringing the teaching of economics up to date and establishing contacts between foreign scholars and their counterparts in India. Such study leave should be on full pay plus allowances to cover the cost of passage both ways and personal expenditure in the country visited

Arrangements for foreign experts to come as visiting professors to various university centres

- 9 Arrangements for recognition of training in economics for appointment in government service, particularly in departments dealing with economic questions. Private employers should be persuaded to adopt a similar policy
- 10 Systematic consultation with economists of repute, by government as well as industrial and commercial organizations, on current economic problems
- 11 Assignment of specific research projects of practical importance by government as well as industrial and commercial organizations to university institutions devoted to research in economics
- 12 Liberal financial provision for scholarships, fellowships, research assistantships and publication grants, so that students interested in the pursuit of advanced studies in economics or in its specialized branches may be in a position to continue their work unhampered by financial worries, and to bring it to the knowledge of the scientific public
- 13 A last, but essential requirement is the development of a National Social Science Research Council, capable of assisting Indian social scientists in the nation-wide integration of their research and training programmes

If above suggestions are to be carried out, adequate funds should be made available by the central and state governments. Donations and endowments by private parties have been responsible for the starting of a number of research institutions in natural sciences and in applied technology. The private industrialist is able to

University	Type of university	Year of foundation	Faculties
Madras	Federative, teaching and affiliating	1857	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine, education, engineering and technology, agriculture, oriental learning and veterinary science
Mysore	Unitary and teaching	1916	Arts, science, commerce, medicine, education and engineering and technology
Nagpur	Affiliating and teaching	1923	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine, education, engineering and technology and agriculture
Osmania	Unitary and teaching	1918	Arts, science, law, medicine, education, engineering, agriculture, animal husbandry, veterinary science, and theology
Patna	Affiliating	1917	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine, education and engineering
Panna	Teaching and affiliating	1949	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine, engineering, agriculture, fine arts, music
Punjab	Teaching and affiliating	1947	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine, education, engineering, agriculture, oriental learning and veterinary science
Rajputana	Teaching and affiliating	1947	Arts, science, commerce, law, engineering and medicine
Saugor	Teaching, affiliating and residential	1946	Arts, science, commerce and law
Travancore	Teaching and affiliating	1937	Arts, science, law, technology, education, engineering, medicine, oriental studies and fine arts
Utkal	Affiliating	1913	Arts, science, law, commerce, medicine and education

1 In India there are four types of universities: unitary teaching, federative teaching, teaching and affiliating, and purely affiliating. In the case of teaching universities, the university directly undertakes the responsibility for providing instruction in some or all subjects. Affiliating universities are those which do not undertake direct teaching responsibilities, though they exercise certain control over the various colleges affiliated to them. In the case of unitary universities the different subjects are taught at the same centre. In the case of federative universities there are different colleges imparting instruction in different subjects. For certain subjects joint responsibility for teaching is held between the university and the constituent colleges.

APPENDIX II

SOURCES OF INCOME OF THE UNIVERSITIES, 1947-48

University	Income from				
	Grant by		Fees	Endowments	Other Sources
	Central government	Provincial governments			
					Total
Agria	—	43	343	—	13
Aligarh	638	64	321	9	372
Allahabad	1 000	1 014	690	—	71
Andhra	10	442	667	33	537
Annamalal	—	916	295	245	121
Banaras	1 903	143	935	1 322	4 177
Bombay	48	305	2 386	346	8 546
Calcutta	—	827	2 090	166	3 739
Delhi	1 967	—	350	—	803
Lucknow	—	1 269	1 026	—	1 274
Mysore	—	—	688	45	—
Nagpur	0 4	189	378	—	176
Osmania	—	—	611	34	46
Patna	—	80	1 235	—	—
Punjab	1 000	177	291	1 177	—
Rajputana	—	—	198	—	7
Saugor	—	789	170	64	32
Travancore	—	—	751	—	704
Utkal	—	61	234	0 1	11
TOTAL	6 566 4	6 819	14 850	3 476 1	9 510
					53 973

1 In thousands of rupees.

APPENDIX III

ECONOMICS COURSES IN DIFFERENT UNIVERSITIES¹

Intermediate Arts

- Aligarh (2) Principles of economics, Indian economics
Allahabad (2) Principles of economics Indian economics
Aodhra (2) Economic geography and economic history Economics of banking
Annamalai (1) Elements of economics
Banaras (3) Principles of economics Economic history Economic geography including banking and commerce
Bombay (1) Economics
Calcutta (1) Elements of economics
Madras (2) Economic history of England Economic geography
Mysore (2) Modern industry Rural economics
Nagpur (2) Economics I² Economics II²
Poona (1) Elements of Economics
Punjab (2) Elementary Indian economics Economic theory
Rajputana (2) Principles of economics I Principles of economics II
Saugor (2) Principles of economics I Principles of economics II

B A

- Agra (3) Economic theory Currency, banking and public finance Indian economic conditions
Aligarh (2) Economics I² Economics II²
Allahabad (2) Economics I² Economics II²
Aodhra (3) Economics—general Two out of the following subjects public finance banking and currency, labour problems, Indian land tenures rural economics, and recent economic history of India and England
Annamalai (4) Economics I² Economics II² Economic history of England and India since A D 1700 Agricultural economics and co operation
Banaras (3) Economics I² Economics II² Economic history of India and Indian economics

1 These are laid out in the following order name of university number of papers (in parentheses) and titles of papers.

2 Unless otherwise stated economics I deals with theory of value and distribution whereas economics II deals with money, banking international trade and foreign exchange

- Bombay:** Economics I.¹ Economics II.¹ Economic history of India, 1750-1930. Economic history of U.K., U.S.A., France, Germany and Russia (post-Industrial Revolution period).
- Calcutta:** (2) Economic principles. Study of Indian economics.
- Delhi:** (3) Economic theory and economic development I. Economic theory and economic development II. Indian Economics.
- Gauhati:** (2) Economic principles. Study of Indian economics.
- Lucknow:** (2) Principles of economics. Indian economic conditions.
- Madras:** (3) General economics. Public finance and rural economics. Modern economic history of England and India.
- Mysore:** (3) Economics I.¹ Economics II.¹ Indian economic history.
- Patna:** (3) Analytical and descriptive economics. Currency, banking, international trade and public finance. Indian economic problems.
- Poona:** (2) Theory of value and distribution, structure of industry, population and labour. Monetary theory, international trade, public finance.
- Punjab:** (2) Political economy. Application of economic principles to Indian topics.
- Rajputana:** (3) Economic theory. Currency, banking and public finance. Indian economic conditions.

B.A. Honours²

- Bombay:**³ (B.A. special): (6) Principles I. Principles II. Economic history of India 1750-1930. Economic history of U.K., U.S.A., France, Germany and Russia (post-Industrial Revolution period). Indian economic problems I. Indian economic problems II.
- Calcutta:**⁴ (3) Economic theory, Indian economics. Money, banking and public finance. Essay.
- Delhi:** (8) Economic theory. Currency, banking and international trade. Public economics. Indian economics (two papers). Modern economic development with reference to economic development of England, Germany, Soviet Russia and Japan. History of economic thought including special study of clauses specified from time to time.

1. Unless otherwise stated, economics I deals with theory of value and distribution whereas economics II deals with money, banking, international trade and foreign exchange.
2. Two years' course
3. Student taking up B.A. special has to take two papers (in addition to papers in economics) in one out of the following groups: political science, statistical methods, comparative social institutions
4. Student taking up honours has to appear for two additional papers in political science and study of political classics.

- Gauhati ¹ (4) Economics I Economics II. Indian economics Essay
- Lucknow ² (2) Principles of economics Indian economic conditions
- Patna (6) Economic theory Currency, banking and exchange (including study of Indian problems) Indian national economy Public finance and international trade Modern economic history Public economics and business organization
- Poona (6) Economics I Economics II Economic history of Europe with special reference to Great Britain (1760 1914) History of economic thought from mercantilists to 1920 Indian economic problems (2 papers)
- Punjab (5) Political economy Application of economic principles to Indian topics Outstanding effects and features of Indian currency and fiscal policy Rural economics with special reference to India and Punjab Any one of the following political science and Indian administration, economic history of India from the time of Akbar to present day, and elements of statistics

B A Honours II³

- Andhra (8) Economic theory. Currency, banking, international trade and trade cycles Public finance including public utilities Industrial organization and labour Economic and business statistics Essay And either two subjects from group A or one subject from each from the following groups A and B under Part II—Group A Indian history, history of Europe from A D 1500 to A D 1919, politics Group B rural economics and co operation, modern economic history of India and England and France, Germany and U S A from A D 1700, a period in the history of economic thought with a classic or classics belonging to that period, mathematical economics (candidates offering mathematical economics shall offer statistical competitions in place of subject under part II, group A and they shall undergo a practical examination in statistics in place of the essay paper under part I)
- Annamalai (8) Economics I Economics II Modern economic history of India from A D 1800 and of Britain Germany, France and U S A from A D 1700 Public economics Politics History of economic thought (with critical study of a classic) Special subject—any one of the following agricultural economics, labour problems, social institutions, statistics, economic geography Essay

- 1 A candidate for the honours course has to take two additional papers in politics
- 2 A candidate for the honours course has to take one additional paper in statistics
- 3 Three years course.

- Madras (5) Economic I—principles Economics II—currency, banking and international trade Public finance, including public utilities Economic history (Great Britain, India, France, Germany and USA) Special subject rural economics, industrial and labour problems, history of economic thought including classics
- Mysore (8 plus 4) Major economic principles, money and banking, industry and labour, public finance, international economics, economic history since 1900, essay, political science Minor 1 and 2—Indian history or mathematical economics, elements of statistics, Indian economics
- Travancore (8 and viva voce) Principles of economics (including history of economic doctrine) Currency, banking and international trade Public finance Two papers out of statistics, industrial organization, rural economics Modern economic history Indian history or politics Essay and viva voce

M A

- Agra (8) Compulsory Principles of economics, history of economic thought including the history of socialism Essay Selective Any five out of the following Economic development and present economic conditions of India and England, financial organization, the State and economic welfare, labour problems and social welfare, rural and municipal economics, theory and practice of statistics co operation, transport, international trade and foreign exchange
- Aligarh (8) For the M A (Previous) three papers are compulsory advanced economic theory, public finance agricultural economics fourth paper to be chosen from economic history or statistics For the M A (Final) following papers are to be taken advanced economic theory, currency and banking labour economics, or mathematical economics essay
- Allahabad Advanced economic theory (to be taken in M.A. final) History of economic thought including social and commercial theories up to and inclusive of Marshall essay in Hindi or Urdu or in English in special cases (Compulsory for M A previous examination) (Viva voce compulsory in both previous and final) Industrial organization and problems of Indian industries Financial organization Rural economics Labour and urban problems State and economic activities Public finance Theory and practice of statistics Mathematical economics Economic development of England and India Economic and commercial geography Transport International trade and fiscal policy Co operation Marketing Mathematical statistics Thesis Special subject for detailed study, such as famine, trade cycles, etc
- M A Examination is divided into two parts M A previous and M A final For M A previous there are 5 papers Papers II and III being compulsory and also viva voce examination

A student for the M A previous examination has to select any three papers from 'Industrial organization' to 'Marketing'. A student for the final examination should take the paper on 'Advanced economic theory' and any three of the remaining papers. Candidates who have passed B.A. examination have to choose among the following papers: industrial organization and problems of Indian industries, financial organization, rural economics, labour and urban problems or public finance. The papers on 'Thesis' and 'Special subject for detailed study such as famine, trade cycles, etc.' to be taken only by students appearing for M A final examination.

Banaras (7) Group A Compulsory papers—principles of economic analysis, financial theories and institutions, recent economic problems of the great powers, recent economic problems of India, recent advances in economic thought, social finance. Group B Optional One to be offered from among the following—economics of employment, economics of modern industry, economics of agriculture, recent trade policies and organization, economics of population, economics of transport, economic statistics.

Bombay (8) History, politics and economics and sociology branches consist of the following eight papers each containing four papers: (A) History and politics, (B) History, (C) Economics, (D) Sociology, (E) Advanced economics, (F) Advanced sociology, (G) Politics, (H) Advanced politics. Students are required to take any two groups, thus those who want to take economics can take Group C and E (entire economics) or Groups C and A or B or D. Group C consists of the following papers: theory of value, theory of money, economics of planning, public finance. Group E consists of seven groups, each having two papers, out of which only two have to be selected: agricultural economics (I and II), industrial economics (I Industrial organization and finance, II Industrial labour), economic development and fluctuations (I Development, II Fluctuations), international economics (I and II), economics of public utilities and transport (I and II), Demography (I and II). Those taking agricultural economics are permitted to offer a dissertation on field work in lieu of one of the papers in agricultural economics.

Calcutta (8) History of economic thought, Economic theory (general principles), Economic theory (money and international trade), Public economics, Modern economic development, Indian economics. Two papers in one of the following subjects: currency and banking, international trade and tariffs, statistics and demography, mathematical and analytical economics, agricultural economics, labour problems.

Delhi (8) Advanced economic theory, International economics, Theory of money and employment, Theory and character of economic development and any two of the following groups:

(A) Rural economics (International agricultural economics Indian rural economics) (B) Industrial economics (Economics of modern industry Indian industries and their problems) (C) Labour economics (Labour organization and welfare in India Labour organization and welfare abroad) (D) Banking (Theory and practice of banking Problems of Indian banking) (E) Economic planning (Theory of economic planning Problems of economic planning in India) (F) Economic statistics (Theoretical statistics Applied statistics and Indian economic statistics)

Gauhati (8) Principles of economics Public finance Indian currency and banking Industrial economics or agricultural economics Advanced theory of economics or history of economic thought. International banking International trade or labour administration or recent economic history Essay

Lucknow (8) Advanced economic theory, principles of sociology, currency and banking, economic history of India (modern period) or social anthropology or statistics history of modern economic thought Indian agricultural economics public finance, labour problems

Mysore (4 and vica voce) After B A honours examination¹ Advanced economic theory, prescribed subject (economics of welfare) problems of Indian industry and labour problems of Indian banking and finance All candidates will have to go through the viva voce examination also A student can take the M A degree also by submitting a thesis He too has to appear for the viva voce examination

Patna (8) Part I currency banking and international trade, business organization, public finance, Indian economic history Part II economic theory, history of economic thought, two papers from any of the following groups Indian rural economics and co operation industries and industrial organization, international trade and tariff policy, banking and currency Indian finance, theory and practice of statistics modern economic history since 1760 including economic history of Asiatic countries, international relations

Poona (8) Compulsory theory of value and distribution, organization and production of labour, money and banking public economics Optional any four out of the following public finance industrial fluctuation structure of industries and economic system labour agricultural economics money, international trade and foreign exchange, public utilities and transport history of economic theory

Punjab (6) Advance theory Money and banking international trade and public finance Indian economics Economic history Thesis including viva voce or essay paper One of the following options political science, theory and practice of statistics, Indian labour problems Sociology

Rajputana (8) (Same as in Agra, see page 81)

¹ See p 81

APPENDIX IV

LIST OF BOOKS RECOMMENDED

Bombay University

Intermediate Arts

Elementary economics Erich Roll, *Elements of Economic Theory* ; V Cohen, *Economic Society* , A C. Pigou, *Income* , J.R Hicks, *The Social Framework*.

Bachelor of Arts

Principles of economics Paper I and II Rohins, *Essay on the Nature and Significance of Economics Science* , F Benham, *Economics* , A. L. Meyers, *Elements of Modern Economics* , A Cairncross, *Introduction to Economics* J E Meade, *Economic Analysis and Policy*, P A Samuelson, *Economics An Introductory Analysis* , Harold Wright, *Population* , M Dohh, *Wages* , H D Henderson, *Supply and Demand* , E A Robinson, *Structure of Competitive Industry* , G. Growther, *Outline of Money* , R F Harrod, *International Economics* , Whale, *International Trade* , H Dalton, *Public Finance* , Ursula Hicks, *Public Finance* , Robinson, *Introduction to the Theory of Employment*

Economic history Paper I R C Dutt, *Economic History of India in the Victorian Age* , R C Dutt, *Economic History of India under Early English Rule* , Radhakamal Mukerjee, *Economic History of India, 1600-1800 A D* , Vera Anstey, *Economic Development of India* , Karl Marx, *Three Letters on India* , D R Gadgi, *Industrial Evolution of India* , Radhakamal Mukerjee, *Indian Working Class*; Government of India, *Reports on Currency Committees* Harshell Committee, Fowler Committee, Chamberlain Committee, Babington Smith Committee and Hilton Young Commission , C N Vakil, *Financial Developments in Modern India, 1860-1924 A D* , B R. Ambedkar, *Provincial Finance*

Paper II Clive Day, *Economic Development in Europe* , L. C A Knowles, *Economic Development in the 19th century* . L C A. Knowles, *Industrial and Commercial Revolutions* , A W Lewis, *Economic Survey, 1919-1939 A D* , M Dobb, *Soviet Economic Development since 1917* , G C Allen, *Short Economic History of Modern Japan* , H U Faulkner, *American Economic History* , N. W Arndt *Lessons of the Nineteen Thirties* (1938) , A Birnie, *Economics of Europe* , Werner Sombart *The Quintessence of Capitalism* (translated and edited by M. Epslein)

Indian economic problems Paper I Nanavati and Anjaria, *Indian Rural Problem* , *Report of the Famine Enquiry Committee* (1945) ; Dantwala, *Agriculture* , Lokanathan, *Industrial Organisation in India* Main Report of the Labour Investigation Committee , Wadia and Merchant, *Our Economic Problem* , D G Karve, *Population* ;

Gyan Chand, *India's Teeming Millions*, Vakil, *Economic Consequences of Divided India*, Report of the Indian Fiscal Commission, Gadgil, *Regulation of Wages*, P N Banerjee, *An Introduction to the Study of Indian Economics*, 6th edition

Paper II Muranjan *Modern Banking in India*, Vakil, *Financial Burden of the War on India*, *Economic Crisis*, Muranjan, *From Hyper-Inflation to Devaluation*, Raj *Monetary Policy of the Reserve Bank of India*, Lakdawala, *Justice in Taxation in India*, Vakil and Patel, *Finance under Provincial Autonomy*, Reports of the Reserve Bank of India on *Currency and Finance*, Ganguly, *Reconstruction of Foreign Trade in India*, *Rural Banking Inquiry Committee's Report*

Master of Arts

For details of syllabuses and books recommended for the M A examination in economics, please refer to pages 69-85 of the *Handbook of the School of Economics and Sociology*, University of Bombay

Calcutta University

Intermediate Arts

Elements of economics P C Ghosh, *Elementary Economics*, Parts I and II, Penson *Economics of Everyday Life*, Parts I and II, P N Banerjee, *An Introduction to the Study of Indian Economics*

Bachelor of Arts (Pas.)

Paper I Fairchild Furniss and Buck *Economics* Marshall, *Economics of Industry*, P N Banerjee, *Study of Indian Economics*

Honours In addition to Pass Course

Paper I Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Cairncross, *Introduction to Economics*

Paper II Jathar and Beri, *Indian Economics*

Paper III Dr Saroj Basu, *Recent Banking Development*, Dalton, *Principles of Public Finance*, Growther, *An Outline of Money*, Sayers, *Modern Banking*, Mrs Hicks, *Public Finance*

Delhi University

Bachelor of Arts

Economic theory and economic development Papers I and II
Books recommended Cairncross, *Introduction to Economics*, (Books for reference) Benham, *Economics*, Henderson, *Supply and Demand*, Whale, *International Trade*, Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Vols I and II

Paper II Books recommended Roll, *About Money*, Leaf, *Banking*, Dalton, *Public Finance*, Birnie, *Economic History of Modern Europe* Books for reference Taussig, *Principles of Economics*, Vols I and II, Robertson, *Money*, Withers, *Measuring*

of Money, Cunningham, *Outline of Western Civilisation*, Ogg and Sharpe, *Economic Development of Modern Europe*; Huberman, *Man's Worldly Goods*, Knowles, *Industrial and Commercial Revolution*.

Indian economics Paper III Books recommended : Wadia and Merchant, *Our Economic Problems*; Banerjee, *A Study of Indian Economics*. Books for reference Mukerjee, *Economic Problems of Modern India*; Jathar and Beri, *Indian Economics*

Allohabod University

Bachelor of Arts

Economics I and II Books prescribed : Taussig, *Principles of Economics*; Chapman, *Outlines of Political Economy*; Todd, *Science of Prices*, Benham, *Economics*; H. L. Chabani, *Indian Currency, Banking and Exchange*, Jathar and Beri, *Indian Economics*, J. K. Mehta, *Elements of Economics*; Dubey and Agarwal, *Simple Diagrams*; Malhotra, *History and Problems of Indian Currency, 1835-1939*; Books recommended : Marshall, *Principles of Economics*, Howard, *Indian Agriculture*, *The Indian Year Book*; Carver, *Distribution of Wealth*; Jain, *Monetary Problems of India*; Dalton, *Public Finance*.

Mysore University

Bachelor of Arts (Honours)

Economic Principles. Robbins, *Nature and Significance of Economic Science*, Carlson, *A Study of the Pure Theory of Production*; Samuelson, *Economics*. Boulding, *Economic Analysis*; Knight, *Risk, Uncertainty and Profit*, Meyers, *Elements of Modern Economics*, Hicks, *Value and Capital*, Gray, *Development of Economic Doctrines*, Ellis, *Survey of Contemporary Economics*; Pawzy, *Theory of Capitalist Development*, Chamberlin, *Monopolistic Competition*; Stigler, *Theory of Price*; Pigou, *Economics of Welfare*, Hall, *Economic System in a Socialist State*; Wickseil, *Lectures on Political Economy*; Keynes, *General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money*; Marshall, *Principles of Economics*; Lerner, *Economics of Control*; Myint, *Theories of Welfare Economics*, Little, *A Critique of Welfare Economics*

Money and banking Groot, *Money*; Sayers, *Modern Banking*; Halm, *Monetary Theory*; De Kock, *Central Banking*; Keynes, *Treatise on Money*, Keynes, *General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money*, Whittlesey, *Principles and Practice of Money and Banking*, Einzig, *Monetary Reform*, Estey, *Business Cycles*; Lindhal, *Studies in the Theory of Money and Capital*; Robertson, *Banking Policy and the Price Level*; Hayek, *Monetary Theory and the Trade Cycle*, Taylor, *Economics of Public Finance*.

Industry and labour Robertson, *Control of Industry*; Bonavia, *Economics of Transport*, Robinson, *The Structure of Competitive Industry*, Robinson, *Monopoly*; Haney, *Industrial Organization and Combination*; Estey, *Business Cycles*, Haberler, *Prosperity*

and Depression ; Zweig, *Economic Planning in a Free Society* ; Cole, *Principles of Economic Planning* ; Hansen, *Economic Policy and Full Employment* ; Beveridge, *Full Employment in a Free Society* , Dohb, *Wages* , Florence, *Labour* , Watkins, *Labour Problems*.

Public finance Daltoo, *Principles of Public Finance* ; Silverman, *Taxation, Its Incidence and Effects* ; Hicks, *Public Finance* , Pigou, *Study in Public Finance* ; De Marco, *First Principles of Public Finance* , Groves, *Government Finance* ; Fagan and Macy, *Readings in Public Finance* ; Somers, *Public Finance and National Income* , Beuhler, *Public Finance* ; Lutz, *Public Finance* ; Allen and Brownlee, *Economics of Public Finance* , Report of the Colwyn Committee on National Debt and Taxation.

International economics. Haberler, *International Trade* ; Beveridge, *Tariff: The Case examined* ; Taussig, *International Trade* ; Ohlin, *Inter-regional and International Trade* , Report of the Indian Fiscal Commission, Beusoo, *Control of Trade* ; Harrod, *International Economics* ; Meade, *Introduction to Economic Analysis and Policy* ; Gordoo, *Barriers to World Trade* ; Smith, *Organised Produce Markets* ; Staley, *World Economic Development* ; Condliffe and Steeos, *The Common Interest* ; Culbertson, *International Economic Policies*

Economic history since 1900 Knowles, *Economic Development of the 19th Century* , Biroie, *Economic History of Modern Europe* ; Ogg and Sharpe, *The Economic Development of Modern Europe* ; Clapham, *Economic Development of France and Germany* , Heaton, *Economic History of Europe* , Alleo, *A Short Economic History of Modern Japon* , Clough and Cole, *Economic History of Europe* ; Dohb, *Soviet Economic Development since 1917* , Bogart, *Economic History of the U S A.* ; Koowles, *Industrial and Commercial Revolutions in Great Britom* ; Lewis, *Economic Survey 1919-1939* ; Colin Clark, *The Conditions of Ecanomic Progress* , Arndt, *Economic Lessons of the Nineteen-Thirties* ; Moulton, *Controlling Factors in Economic Development*.

Modros University

Bachelor of Arts

Economics general Marshall, *Economics of Industry* , Clay, *Economics for the General Reader* , R. D Richards, *Groundwork of Economics*, 2nd Edition , Jathar and Beri, *Introduction to economics* , Birnie, *Economics in Outline* For reference Briggs and Jordoo, *Text-book of Ecanomics* , Dearle, *Economics*.

Economics (special) Part I Rural Economics Carver, *Principles of Rurol Economics* , Keatinge, *Agricultural Progress in Western India* , Matthal, *Agricultural Cooperatuan* , Abridged Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, 1928 , Dr B V. Narayanswami Naidu and Mr Narasimhan, *Ecanomics of Indian Agriculture*

Part II Public Finance Dalton, *Public Finance*, Armitage-Smith, *The Nature and Principles of Taxation*, Report of the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee

Modern economic history of England and India Ashley, *Economic Organisation of England*, Gadgil, *The Industrial Evolution of India*, Koowles, *Industrial and Commercial Revolutions in the 19th Century*, Slater, *The Making of Modern England*, Imperial Gazetteer, Vol III, Southgate, *English Economic History*

APPENDIX VI

SALARY SCALES FOR PROFESSORS AND LECTURERS PER MONTH

University Teachers

	Old universities (e.g. Bombay) ¹	New universities (e.g. Delhi)
Professors	Rs. 800-50-1,000 ²	Rs. 800-40-1,000-50-1,250
Readers	Rs. 400-25-700	Rs. 500-25-800
Lecturers	Rs. 200-20-400-25-500	Rs. 200-15-290-20-410-25-560
Research assistants	Rs. 150	Rs. 200 (no dearness allowance)
Investigators	Rs. 150	

College Teachers

In Government Colleges (Bombay)³

Professors (Bombay Educational Service Class I)	Rs. 600-40-1,000-50-1,100
Professors (Bombay Educational Service Class II)	Rs. 650-30-800 (Selection grade for 15% of the posts)
Assistant professors and lecturers (Bombay Educational Service Class II)	Rs. 220-15-400-20-500-25-650
Assistant lecturers (Subordinate Educational Service)	Rs. 160-10-200-10-250

In Private Colleges (Bombay)

Minimum scales prescribed by the university :

	Bombay	Mofussil
Professors	Rs. 300-15-450	Rs. 250-15-400
Lecturers	Rs. 200-10-350	Rs. 150-10-300
Demonstrators (Tutors)	Rs. 150-5-200	Rs. 100-5-150

Some colleges give dearness allowance at varying rates while others do not give any allowances at all.

1. Only dearness allowance is payable at the rates applicable to the Bombay Government.
2. 800=minimum, 50=rate of increment, 1,000=maximum.
3. Dearness allowance, plus local compensatory allowance in Bombay City as well as house rent are given in addition to the above salaries by the Government of Bombay.

Recommendation of the University Commission 1949*University Teachers*

Professors, Rs 900-50-1,350 ; Readers, Rs 600 30-900 , Lecturers, Rs 300 25-600 , Fellows, Rs 250 , Research Fellows, Rs 250 25-500

Affiliated Colleges (postgraduate)

Principals, Rs 800 40-1,000 ; senior posts, Rs 500 25-800 ; Lecturers, Rs 200 14-320-20-400-25-500

Affiliated Colleges (undergraduate)

Principals, Rs 600-40-800 ; senior posts, Rs. 400-25-600 , Lecturers, Rs 200-15-320 20-400

APPENDIX VII

STATISTICS RELATING TO BOMBAY UNIVERSITY

(a) *Combinations of Subjects offered by Students in B A, B Com, and M A Examinations in Economics, 1950*

For the B A the total number of students was 2 790 Number taking economics (general), 675, economics (honours), 867, principles of economics, 1,532, Indian economic problems, 857, economic history, 331, statistical methods, 57 Students of economics taking political science, 1 220, comparative social institutions 99, any paper in history, 531, mathematics, 2 Students of economics combining economics with social sciences, 191

The total number of students for the M A was 500, of whom 122 combined economics with other social sciences by various combinations Number taking advanced economics (all eight papers in economics), 37, agricultural economics, 30, industrial economics, 38, economic development and fluctuations, 19, econometrics, 8 No students took international economics, economics of public utilities and transport, or demography

For the B Com the total number of students was 1,114, economics was taken by all the students Number taking accountancy and auditing, 787, actuarial science, 19, banking, 217, economics of cotton, 72, public finance, 1, transport, 62, statistics, 51 Students taking economics with mathematics, 19

(b) *Subjects of Research classified according to Branches of Economics (School of Economics and Sociology, Bombay University) since 1924*

	<i>M.A theses since 1924</i>	<i>Ph.D theses since 1940</i>	<i>Published</i>
Agricultural economics	9	4	6
Banking and currency	5	1	1
Demography	2	1	1
Economic surveys	7	2	—
Economic theory	—	3	2
Insurance	1	1	1
Labour	4	3	3
National income	1	—	1
Organized markets	3	1	3
Public finance	7	5	4
Socialism	—	1	—
Trade and industry	17	7	6
Transport	2	1	1
<i>Total</i>	<i>58</i>	<i>30</i>	<i>29</i>
Theses under preparation	4	29	—

(c) Qualifications of Teaching Staff in Economics in Bombay Colleges and the University

Colleges	Indian universities			Foreign universities			Total
	B A or B Com	M A or M Com	Ph D or D Litt (Indian)	B A, B Sc (Econ) or B Com	M A, M Sc (Econ) Etc	Ph D D Litt or D Sc	
Sophia College for Women	—	3	—	—	—	—	3
Ramnarain Ruia College	1	4	—	—	—	—	5
Khalsa College	—	2	—	—	—	—	2
Jai Hind College	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics	—	4	—	2	—	1	7
Elphinstone College	—	4	—	1	—	—	5
M M College, Andheri	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Ismail Usuf College	—	4	—	—	—	—	4
Siddharth College	—	6	1	—	—	—	7
Podar College of Commerce and Economics	—	5	—	1	—	—	6
National College	—	2	—	—	—	—	2
St Xavier's College	—	2	—	—	—	1	3
School of Economics and Sociology	1	8	3	—	1	—	9
TOTAL	2	46	4	4	1	2	55

CHAPTER III

THE TEACHING OF POLITICAL SCIENCE

By S. V. Kogekar

Introductory Remarks

The present report is based on information collected during 1950-51. While some changes may have taken place since then in the data cited in the report, the general picture remains substantially the same.

The author expresses his thanks to colleagues and friends in almost all universities in India, in the National Defence Academy and in the Indian Council of World Affairs for placing at his disposal much valuable information about the teaching of political science in this country. He is also grateful to the registrars of all Indian universities for their courtesy in supplying information regarding syllabuses and books prescribed for courses of study in political science.

The Institutional Background

The Student

A student qualifies for admission to most of our universities on passing the matriculation or secondary school certificate examination held either by a university or by a board set up by the state government for the purpose. In a few universities, like Allahabad, Lucknow and Agra, entrance is given after the intermediate examination which is taken two years after the passing of the secondary school certificate examination.

The secondary school certificate examination (also known as the matriculation or the high school certificate examination, or merely as school final) is taken after the student has gone through a course of instruction lasting seven years in a secondary school, preceded by a course of four years in a primary school. If the age when the child joins the primary school is six (which is about the average), a student comes to the university when he or she is 17. The secondary school syllabus was for a long time dominated by the entrance requirements of the university, which meant courses in English, a classical language (like Sanskrit, Pali, Ardhamagadhi, Greek, Latin, Hebrew, etc.) or a modern European language (like French, German, Spanish, etc.), a regional language (like Marathi, Hindi, Gujarati, Bengali, etc.), algebra, geometry, arithmetic, history, geography, and general science (which may be physics and chemistry or physiology and hygiene or domestic science). Latterly, the variety of subjects and the number of options available to students have been increased to some states with a view to giving the secondary school examination an independent status testifying to the completion of a certain

stage in the educational ladder, instead of being conceived primarily as the university entrance examination. The universities are however free to lay down the subjects and the minimum standard of performance at the examination which entitles a student to seek admission to them.

University Courses

Except in the few universities where admission is given on passing the intermediate examination a degree course in a university extends over a minimum period of four years (two or three years in the case of the above exceptions). There is an intermediate examination after the first two years, followed by the degree examination two years later. In some universities (e.g. Madras) there is a three years' honours degree course which can be taken in place of the two years' pass degree course after the intermediate examination. The advantage for those who take the honours course is that they can take the master's degree a year later, this may in some cases be without passing any additional examination (following the Oxford and Cambridge practice). In most universities, however, the master's degree is given after an examination which comes two years after passing the first degree examination. Thus, normally, it takes six years for a student to get the master's degree after completing his secondary school course.

For faculties other than arts (which includes the social sciences), the period covered by the first degree course is naturally not the same as that for the arts faculty. But no reference is made in this note to these other faculties (e.g. medicine, engineering, law, agriculture, etc.)

Research Degree

The practice of granting the master's degree by research is now on the decline. But in Madras and Annamalai universities there is an M Litt degree which can be taken after a year's research by honours graduates and two years' research by other graduates. Generally speaking, the research degrees awarded are the Ph.D. or D Phil (in Allahabad) and the D Litt. The former can be taken on presentation of a thesis based on research work carried out under the supervision of a recognized teacher, while the latter is given on the basis of independent, published work. Usually a minimum interval between the date of graduation or the taking of the lower doctorate and the presentation of the work for the D Litt is laid down. In Bombay, it is seven years after the first degree, three years after the master's degree or two years after the Ph.D.

University Organization

Universities in India originated mainly as examining bodies. From 1857, when the three universities of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta were established, till about 1914, no direct teaching or research activity was undertaken by the universities. Teaching

was done in colleges which were affiliated to the universities and managed either by government or by private agencies. The universities laid down the courses, prescribed books, held examinations and awarded degrees. Whatever direct teaching and research work the universities of today are doing thus goes back some 35 years only.

University organization and activities are not uniform over the whole country. At one end there are universities like Agra and Utkal which are still only affiliating and examining bodies. At the other end we have the universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh, Banaras, Annamalai and Baroda which are unitary, teaching and residential. The majority of our universities lie somewhere between these two types, combining the teaching and affiliating functions in varying degrees. Generally speaking, these middle-of-the-road universities have tended to take over postgraduate instruction and research themselves, leaving instruction up to the first degree stage in the hands of the affiliated colleges. But most of these universities are too poor to set up postgraduate departments except in a few subjects and therefore depend on the teachers in the constituent and affiliated colleges to provide instruction and, where qualified teachers are available, guidance in research in many subjects.

University Constitution

Indian universities are created by Acts of the central or state governments. The degrees of statutory universities are recognized for purposes of administrative employment—public as well as private (possession of a degree in arts, science, commerce, etc. is invariably a condition for employment in all but the lowest ranks of office workers). Again, statutory universities do not generally recognize the examinations and degrees of non-statutory bodies as equivalent to their own examinations and degrees for purposes of inter-university exchange (except in the case of certain technical courses where the diplomas granted by professional bodies such as an institute of engineers or a college of physicians, might be recognized).

The Act constituting a university lays down the powers, functions and constitution of the university and gives it the status of a corporation which can sue and be sued in its own name. Within the framework of the Act the university is free to make rules, ordinances, regulations and statutes for carrying out its functions.

The constitution of a university usually provides for the establishment of certain faculties—arts, science, law, medicine, etc., boards of studies for different subjects or groups of subjects in each faculty, an Academic Council, a Court or Senate, and an Executive Council or Syndicate. The first three bodies are concerned with the organization of studies, prescription of syllabuses and books, maintenance of standards of teaching and

examination and generally with looking after the academic side of the university's function. The Court or Senate is generally the legislative and deliberative body consisting of a large non-academic element, partly elected from various constituencies and partly nominated by the government. The powers of the Court or Senate vary from Act to Act, but generally it has little direct control over the day to day working of the university. The supreme executive body is the Executive Council or Syndicate, elected partly by the Court and partly by the Academic Council with a few *ex officio* seats, which controls the finances and property of the university and takes all decisions of an executive or administrative character, including the final acceptance of courses prepared by the academic bodies.

Universities and Colleges

In the case of the unitary and teaching universities like Allahabad, all instruction is given by the university through its various departments. But in other cases, except in a few postgraduate departments directly under the management of the university, instruction is given in colleges affiliated to the universities. The colleges are scattered over a wide region included within the territorial jurisdiction of the university. Agra university has the widest jurisdiction, covering the whole of U.P. and parts of Central India (excluding, of course, the areas of the four unitary universities in that state). The total area of the UP alone is 106,247 square miles, and the distance between the seat of the university (Agra) and an affiliated college can be as great as 400 miles.

The colleges are conducted either by the government, in which case they come under the state department of education or by private agencies such as charitable trusts. Generally speaking, the number of arts and science colleges run by private agencies far out number those under government management. But in the case of technical and professional colleges, those of engineering, medicine, agriculture, etc., they are mostly government institutions.

But whether privately conducted or government managed, the colleges are under the control of the universities, in so far as the university prescribes the courses and books and standards of teaching and examination, and lays down other conditions of affiliation such as minimum qualifications and salaries of teachers, library and laboratory equipment and maximum hours of lecturing work.

There are a few colleges run directly by the university as, for example, the University Colleges of Law and of Arts and Commerce of Andhra University and the Law College and Teachers' Training College of Nagpur University.

Funds

The main source of the income of our universities as well as colleges is the fees paid by students for registration, instruction

and examination. Some universities do benefit from endowments created for specific purposes, but they are few and far between. Except in a few cases in some of the universities, endowments are generally devoted to the institution of prizes and scholarships awarded on the basis of the results of various examinations. Apart from fees, universities and colleges receive grants-in-aid from the government. But as these are not as substantial as the universities and colleges would like them to be in view of their needs, fees remain the principal source of revenue. This is especially so in the case of private colleges which may at the start receive a capital donation from some wealthy local magnate after whom or according to whose wishes, the college is named. Such institutions have to rely on students' fees for securing the income necessary to cover the major portion of their current expenditure. The number of students may be as low as 200 in an intermediate college in a mofussil town and as large as 3,000 in a city college in Calcutta.

Language

The medium of instruction in schools is now invariably the regional language. When a student passes the secondary school certificate examination he has learnt most of the subjects for that examination in his mother tongue, though English is a compulsory subject. But when he joins a college he has to change over to English which is the medium of instruction in all subjects in many of the universities. In some universities, such as Nagpur, Banaras and Lucknow, the medium continues to be the regional language which, in the case of the latter two, is also the federal language, i.e. Hindi. But, even then, at the postgraduate level the student has to change over to English.

The question of the medium of instruction in higher education has become a matter of controversy, the advocates of English pointing out the advantage of retaining contacts with the world through English, which has now become an international language, and the difficulty and/or undesirability of coining and introducing Indian language equivalents for scientific terms. The major argument on the other side is the need to reduce the social and cultural gulf between the English-educated few and the mass of people by giving the latter an easy access to knowledge through the vernacular language. There is no doubt that the controversy will be resolved in favour of this latter view as and when the regional and federal languages replace English in the government offices and the courts, which is still not the case. There is general agreement that English should be retained as a compulsory second language in the high schools as well as in the universities, even when it is replaced as the medium of instruction.

Other Institutions

Apart from universities, there are a number of research institutes in the country financed and managed by government or by

private agencies. But most of them are devoted to research in fields other than the social sciences, their fields of activity being history, oriental learning, agriculture, nutrition, the natural sciences—fundamental and applied, and industrial research. It is true that the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore has recently opened a section in economics and social sciences with two full time workers in it, but this is in the nature of an exception. The only institution devoted to research in a social science, viz. economics, is in Poona, and it undertakes surveys for the collection of facts relating to our economic life. It consists of three persons of professorial status and a number of investigators, tabulators, etc. This institute is recognized by Poona University for purposes of postgraduate research in economics.

Instruction and Examination

University instruction is mainly given by means of lectures. Tutorials and seminars are exceptional. The reason why the lecture method predominates is owing to the large number of students in the colleges and the small number of teachers. Inadequate finances stand in the way of the appointment of tutors, even where the value of tutorial instruction is recognized. At the postgraduate stage, some seminar work is possible, but is still not well organized. A college teacher has to give from 15 to 24 lectures a week, the number varying from university to university. The university lays down the maximum hours of lectures per week, and this maximum invariably becomes the rule in the colleges. The total period of instruction in a year is between seven and eight months, divided into two or three terms, the summer vacation at the end extending over nearly three months. The university examination is held at the end of the second year (intermediate), fourth year (degree) and sixth year (postgraduate). Where a three year honours degree is instituted, the degree examination may be divided into two parts coming at the end of the fourth and fifth years respectively. In some universities the postgraduate degree (M A or M Sc) examination is also taken in parts at the end of the fifth and sixth years respectively. The mode of examination is invariably the written test, the duration of a paper of 100 marks being three hours. In some universities a viva voce test is also held at the M A. This test is equivalent to one paper of 100 marks, there being seven other papers prescribed for the examination.

Besides university examinations, which are sometimes referred to as public examinations, every college may hold terminal or annual tests, sometimes referred to as home examinations. But these tests are not taken very seriously as, barring exceptional cases they do not result in withholding the student's promotion from the lower to the higher class.

Attendance at lectures is compulsory and unless the student is present at between 66 and 75 per cent (the figure varies with

the university) of them during a term, he will not be given credit for the term

Following is a list of universities, the figures in brackets denoting the number of colleges (too numerous to mention by name) affiliated to them and the number of students in all the colleges of each university¹ Agra (50), 17,000, Aligarh (unitary), 3,600, Allahabad (unitary), 4,600, Andhra (32), 11,100, Annamalai (unitary), 1,600, Banaras (unitary) 5,500, Baroda (unitary), 3,000, Bombay (21), 15,500, Calcutta (83), 56,500, Delhi (15), 4,200, East Punjab (67) 19,500, Gauhati (20), 8,100, Gujarat (18), 8,100, Jammu and Kashmir (10), about 2,000, Karnatak (9), 3,100, Lucknow (unitary), 5,000, Madras, (70), 42,400, Mysore (31) 10,000, Nagpur (20), 7,800, Osmania (13), 7,600, Patna (38) 20,400, Ponna (24), 19,300, Rajputana (29), 6,800, Saugor (15) 5,000, Travancore (19), 12,000, Utkal (17), 5,600, Indian Women's University, Bombay (4), 400, a total of 305,700 students

Place of Political Science in the Universities

Introductory

Though it is at the university stage that political science as such is studied in India, the student is introduced to some aspects of it even at the pre university stage. This is done by including a study (in outline) of the administrative structure of the country in the secondary school curriculum. Usually this study is included in the paper on the modern history of India. Another subject related to political science which also figures in the secondary school curriculum is civics. The syllabus in this paper is so designed as to make the student aware of his social environment and of the need for organization in social life. General notions of the importance, functions, and organization of social groups such as the family, neighbourhood, state, nation, are given. In this course, emphasis is laid on the rights and duties of citizenship and on the importance of local self governing (*i.e.* municipal) institutions. The age of the student at this stage is between 15 and 16. The method of approach to these subjects is mainly descriptive.

1 It was not possible to secure the exact figures for all universities for the same year. These figures are based on information derived from three sources, viz. information supplied by heads of departments in several universities, the *Commonwealth Universities Handbook—1951* and *Handbook of the Inter-University Board of India 1951*. The figures give no more than a rough idea of the actual position.

Recently (1954) the Ministry of Education of the Government of India published a report entitled *Education in India 1950-51*, providing comprehensive statistics relating to different stages of education in the country. Unfortunately this report does not give the distribution of colleges and students by university. The total number of pupils at the university stage is given as 423,326 of whom 325,723 were pursuing a course of general education in 1950-51. The number of arts and science colleges in that year was 516.

Civics is not, however, a compulsory subject in all states and does not figure in the Madras curriculum at all

Political Science in the Universities

In the universities, there are four levels at which political science may be studied, mainly the intermediate, the first degree, the master's degree, and research degrees

1. At the intermediate level, that is during the first two years of the university course, the subject is introduced under the name of civics or civics and administration, or elements of politics, or civics and public administration, or there may be two papers, one in civics and one in administration. The treatment of the subject is more abstract than at the secondary school stage. Where a study of administration is included in the syllabus, it is also much more detailed than at the pre-university stage. The only exceptions among the universities, where no provision is made for this subject at the intermediate level, are Madras, Mysore and Travancore. A proposal to remedy the defect is under contemplation at the last two universities.

There is a wide choice of subjects at this stage and it is possible to avoid the study of civics and administration by choosing some other combination of subjects. Where these subjects are chosen, they account for one or two papers out of seven to nine at the intermediate (or, in some universities, the first year) examination.

2. It is at the first degree stage that political science figures in the university curriculum as an important group of subjects. It is included in the courses leading to the B.A. degree in all universities. Its status among other subjects at this examination is, however, not everywhere the same. In 11 universities, viz. Aligarh, Allahabad, Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, (East) Punjab, Rajputana and Travancore, it is on a par with other subjects like history, economics, philosophy, etc. But in others it has a lower status in that it is studied as a subsidiary subject in which there may be one or two papers for the examination. Thus, for instance, in Bombay University, a student desiring to study for the B.A. honours degree can choose economics or history as his special subject, but he cannot offer more than two papers in political science, the other six being in history or economics. The sole criterion of status in a university is not, however, the option of choosing political science as an honours subject, because all universities do not provide for specialization at this stage. The University of Rajputana, to take an example, requires the candidate for the B.A. degree examination to choose three subjects out of a given list besides English, which is compulsory. Political science is included in this list and consists of two papers at the examination. In such a case the status of

this subject must be regarded as equal to that of any other. On the other hand, where a specialized honours course is provided, it is necessary to take that as the criterion of status. Thus, in the University of Travancore, where politics is a special subject for the three year degree course, on a par with history and economics, it has only a subsidiary place in the two year degree course, with only one paper allotted to it in the philosophy, history and economics groups respectively. Here, in view of the three year degree course, the status of the subject can be regarded as equal to that of history and economics.

The number of papers in political science at the B A pass examination is generally two, though in Andhra there is only one and in Banaras there are three. It varies from four to seven at the B A honours examination. In addition to these, there are papers in English which are compulsory. The total number of papers at the first degree examination (pass and honours) is not the same everywhere, but 10 may be taken as the normal.

- 3 At the master's degree examination which is taken two years after the first degree stage, political science has been introduced as a special subject on a par with other subjects like history or economics in most of our universities. There are, however, some universities, viz Annamalai, Delhi, Baroda, Gauhati, Jammu and Kashmir, and Utkal, where political science is not yet given the status of subjects like history, economics and philosophy at the B A or the M A examinations. Delhi has a draft scheme for remedying the defect, and Jammu and Kashmir is engaged on framing one. But, Annamalai and Baroda still regard this subject as subsidiary to history, while Gauhati and Utkal have attached it to economics.

The number of papers at the M A examination is generally eight, some (generally four) of which are compulsory and the rest to be chosen out of a much larger number. Mysore, where the examination is taken one year after the three year honours course for the B A, has prescribed only four papers and a viva voce, Agra and Rajputana have seven papers, while Punjab has six. An essay paper forms one of the eight in several universities, such as Agra, Allahabad, Lucknow, Nagpur, Rajputana and Saugor.

- 4 Research degrees have been instituted in all universities except Gauhati, Jammu and Kashmir and the Indian Women's University. It is, therefore, theoretically possible for research in political science to be conducted in all but these three universities. The first research degree in Annamalai, Madras and Travancore Universities is the M Litt, while in Aligarh, Andhra, Bombay and Baroda the M A. can be taken on the

hesis of a thesis in lieu of the written papers, though the practice is now being discouraged. The first doctorate is the Ph D in all universities except Allahabad where it is D Phil. The higher doctorate degree is the D Litt everywhere (in the faculty of science it is usually the D Sc but political science is included in the arts or the social science faculty)

In actual fact, provision for research in political science is available in only 13 out of the 27 universities Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Bombay, Calcutta, Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur, Patna, Poona, Punjab and Saugor. In all these universities together, some 35 teachers and about 100 postgraduate students are engaged in research in various branches of political science. Lucknow and Bombay claim over half the research students, while Allahabad comes third on the list. But the number of teachers engaged in research in these centres is not larger than that in many others such as Mysore, Nagpur, Patna, Punjab and Poona.

Though figures are not available, it can be safely asserted that the number of teachers and students engaged in research in history or economics is much larger. The reason lies in the comparatively late introduction of political science in the graduate and postgraduate courses, and the paucity of teachers interested primarily in political science. In some universities, for example those in Bombay State political science has been introduced as an independent subject at the M A only within the last year. In many universities political science is being taught by teachers whose main interest is history or economics. This is due, partly at any rate, to the difficulty of providing adequate lecturing work in political science alone where it is a subsidiary subject. Financially, the colleges cannot afford to employ underworked teachers and, therefore, they try to secure the services of those who can lecture on more than one subject in the group history, economics and politics.

Boards of Studies

One way of assessing the importance of political science in our universities is by finding out whether it has been allotted a separate Board of Studies. A Board of Studies is a body of teachers constituted for the purpose of making recommendations to the appropriate authorities of the university regarding the syllabus, textbooks and examinations in a particular subject or group of subjects. Its size varies from university to university and may extend over half a dozen to as many as 20 teachers. In 13 out of our 27 universities there is no separate board for political science, which is included in a common board with some other subject like history (in the case of six), or economics (three), or sociology (four). In the first two of these three classes of combined boards it often happens that the other

subject is far better represented than political science and also dominates the proceedings of the board. In an equal number of universities—which include Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Delhi, Lucknow, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, Punjab, Rajputana and Saugor—there is a separate board for political science. In Calcutta there is a common board for economics and politics so far as the organization of the undergraduate courses is concerned, but the postgraduate department in political science is independently organized.

It is noticeable that in the south politics are largely overshadowed by history, while in Bombay and certain North Indian universities it is dominated by economics and to a small extent by sociology.

Institutions imparting instruction in Political Science

The teaching of political science in India is partly undertaken by teachers appointed by the university and partly by teachers appointed by the affiliated colleges. Broadly speaking there are three different ways in which instruction is organized, viz

- 1 All instruction is centralized at the university and imparted by teachers of the university. This is the case in the six unitary and teaching universities.
- 2 Instruction up to the first degree examination is imparted in colleges affiliated to the universities, while all postgraduate (in some cases, honours) instruction is centralized at the seat of the university. There are nine universities in this category.
- 3 All instruction is imparted by the affiliated colleges. If there is a department at the university, it supplements rather than replaces the colleges imparting instruction. There are 12 such universities.

Teachers appointed by the university always work at the seat of the university. There are approximately 280 colleges affiliated to various universities which impart instruction in political science up to varying levels.

So far the following universities have established separate departments of political science: Aligarh, Allahabad, Baroda, Banaras, Bombay, Calcutta, Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, Poona and Saugor. In the unitary university of Annamalai, which is not included in this list, political science is taught by the teachers in the history department. Instruction in these universities is organized in the first two of the above three ways. The remaining 12 universities fall under the third category.

External Control

All decisions pertaining to the institution of courses of studies, prescription of syllabuses and textbooks, organization of instruction and holding of examinations in our universities are

left solely in the hands of the various university bodies. Governments do not interfere with them. Governments, it is true, provide a part of the funds required by the colleges and universities, but they do not use this as a means of bringing pressure to bear on these institutions regarding any academic decision. Power to investigate into any alleged malpractices remains, of course, with the Government, but except in cases of grave financial mismanagement it has not been used.

There are a number of colleges run by the governments in various states. But the courses of studies, etc. in these institutions are determined by the university to which they are affiliated. The control of governments in these colleges extends over the activities of the staff—all of whom are organized on a civil service basis. But in the arts and social science faculties, such colleges are fewer than those which are run by non-government agencies.

Number of Students

The total number of students in all universities is approximately 400,000. The number of students taking political science as their special group at the B.A. honours or M.A. is not large. In 12 universities for which these figures were separately available the proportion of such students was just one in every 10. As all universities do not provide for specialization in political science, the proportion would probably work out to even less than one in 10 for the country as a whole. All that can be surmised, therefore, is that not more than 4,000 to 5,000 students are pursuing specialist courses in political science in the whole country at the B.A. honours or M.A. degree stage.

Budget for Political Science

The following statement provides information about the approximate amount of money spent on the department of political science in those universities which have one.

<i>University</i>	<i>Amount in total budget</i>	<i>Amount spent on the department of political science</i>	<i>Percentage of amount</i>
	<i>thousands of rupees</i>	<i>rupees</i>	
Aligarh	1 700	55 000	3.2
Allahabad	2 900	63 300	2.1
Baroda	2 000	4 600	0.23
Banaras	6 000	44 000	0.73
Bombay	2 200	32 000	1.5
Calcutta	8 900	45 400	0.51
Lucknow	5 300	53 500	1.0
Madras	3 900	11 500	0.29
Mysore	4 800	18 000	0.37
Nagpur	900	35 000	3.8
Osmania	6 000	27 700	0.46
Patna	1 400	30 000	2.1
Poona	1 800	9 000	0.5
Saugor	1 300	12 600	0.96

government Lucknow, Madras, Nagpur and Patna have such courses Allahabad has instituted a full fledged M A course in diplomacy, presumably with an eye to the requirements of the newly organized diplomatic services of the country But it is too early yet to say how far these courses have succeeded in their objective

Incidentally, it may be observed that a student specializing in economics has a much wider field of employment open to him than has the specialist in political science And from the employment point of view it seems obvious that even specialist courses in political science must not be conceived in too exclusive a spirit, quite apart from the harm thereby done to political science itself

Organization of Teaching

Qualifications of Teachers

The minimum qualifications of teachers in colleges are usually laid down by the universities Generally speaking a second class at the master's degree examination in the subject concerned is essential In some universities a first class at the bachelor's degree examination is accepted as an alternative to a master's degree In the universities themselves for appointments of readers and professors, teaching experience for a certain period (5 to 10 years) and evidence of research ability are also necessary qualifications In universities where political science is a subsidiary subject and where the teacher has also to teach another subject usually history or economics he may have no special qualifications for teaching political science except that he has studied for a paper or two in it at his bachelor's or master's degree examination This is perhaps inevitable in universities where political science is not a subject for specialization at any stage or where it has been made so only recently In the colleges belonging to 11 universities the practice is to combine the teaching of political science with history or economics In seven other universities this practice is resorted to in some of the colleges In the remaining nine universities, every college has at least one teacher in political science who is not required to teach other subjects

Recognition of Teachers

For teaching postgraduate classes and for guiding research students, teachers in the affiliated colleges have to secure the recognition of the university authority concerned The body granting recognition considers the qualifications, experience and research work of the applicants with a view to ascertaining their capacity for this work As minimum qualifications for such recognition are not prescribed everywhere, complaints on the score of nepotism are sometimes heard

Length of Different Courses

Except in the universities of Andhra, Annamalai, Delhi, Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur and Travancore where the honours course for the first degree extends over three years, in all other universities the duration of the course for the first degree is two years, after passing the intermediate examination. In the above-mentioned universities (except in Delhi) there is provision for a separate pass degree course which extends over two years after the intermediate. In the remainder, the distinction between pass and honours rests either on securing a first or second class at the examination when the degree is conferred with honours, or on taking the final examination in a few additional papers and scoring a certain percentage of marks.

The master's degree course generally extends over two years after taking the first degree. But in the case of universities providing the three year honours course as distinct from the two year pass course, the master's degree is granted without further examination, Mysore being an exception. Students desiring to go in for the master's degree after doing the two-year pass course in these universities, have to put in an additional two year period and sit with the second and third-year honours students for the M A examination, which is identical with the honours (three-year course) examination.

Examinations

Except in the Universities of Aligarh, Allahabad, Lucknow, Saugor and Travancore, where a viva voce test forms part of the final examination for the M A degree, all examinations are written. In Madras, it is proposed to introduce the viva voce and two written papers for research students presenting a thesis for the M Litt and Ph D degrees. Elsewhere, the doctorate is conferred on the basis of a thesis with or without a viva voce at the discretion of the referees.

The written examinations are rigid tests governed by detailed rules prescribing, among other things, the minimum percentage of marks for a pass and for the second and first classes. Usually, at the intermediate examination, 33 per cent of marks in each paper is the minimum for a pass, while 45 per cent and 60 per cent of the aggregate marks are required for securing the second and first class respectively. The same is largely true at the B A pass degree examination. At the B A honours and M A examinations it is usual to prescribe a minimum percentage of marks in each paper and a higher percentage in the aggregate. Thus, in Bombay, the minimum for a pass at the M A is 25 marks out of 100 in each of the eight papers and 300 marks out of 800 in the aggregate, at least 50 per cent marks in the aggregate are required for a second class and 65 per cent for a first.

The system of valuation of answer-books everywhere is that of allotting marks out of a given number for each question, and then totalling up the marks for all individual questions to arrive at the marks in the paper. In a paper in political science, where the maximum of marks obtainable is 100 and where the candidate is asked to answer five questions, the marks for each question will be given out of 20. But all questions need not necessarily carry equal marks, and it is open to the examiner to distribute the total of 100 marks among the questions unequally, according to the time or degree of intelligence required for answering them.

In some cases—as in Bombay for the M A—the answer-book may be valued as a whole, in which case quality rather than quantity is the dominant consideration in estimating the worth of an answer-book.

In certain universities, such as Andhra and Punjab, the answer-book at the honours or M A examination is valued independently by two examiners and the average of the combined marks is accepted as the final valuation.

Since the number of students is generally too large in relation to that of teachers, it has not been possible in this country to adopt either the tutorial system (as practised at Oxford and Cambridge) or the weekly or fortnightly tests (after the American pattern) by means of which individual attention is given to the student and his progress regularly watched. Here, the university examination which comes at the end of a year or two years is the only test by which the student's proficiency in a subject is judged. There is feverish activity among students a few weeks before this final ordeal, but at this late stage they have neither the time nor the patience to go deep into a subject. The result is that they 'mug up' a few things from a 'help-book' or 'guide' in a superficial way and sit for the examination. No wonder there is a large number of failures.

Teachers' Handicap

A glaring defect in the organization of university teaching, but which is not perhaps so keenly felt in the unitary universities, is the excessive emphasis laid on teachers in all the colleges affiliated to a university, conforming to the method of treatment of a subject as determined by a centralized system of examination. The question paper is the same for students in all the affiliated colleges, and may be drawn up by teachers in one or two of these colleges or by an external examiner who has never taught the subject. If a teacher were to treat a subject in his own way by exercising some initiative, he would expose himself to the charge of misleading the students, his main duty being to guide them up to and through the final examination held by the university.

Control of the University

While it is true that the state gives complete freedom to the universities to organize the courses of studies and instruction in any way they choose, the control exercised by them in these matters over their colleges has tended to be extremely rigid. Consequently, individual institutions or teachers have no power to organize the studies in any but the university ordained way. It is a fact that the authorities of universities are themselves largely composed of teachers, but in the decisions taken by them administrative considerations have tended to outweigh academic considerations. The result is that the teacher in the affiliated colleges has been largely reduced to repeating his lectures in a mechanical way in order to 'cover the portion prescribed by the university'.

Subjects Taught*Three Levels*

It will be convenient to deal with this question under three headings corresponding to the three levels in the teaching of political science in our universities, viz the intermediate examination, the B A pass examination and the B A honours examination or the M A examination (The B A honours examination relates to the three year honours course in certain universities where it is equivalent to the M A course)

Intermediate Level

The two subjects taught at this level are civics and public administration, which are prescribed under different headings. The first part deals mainly with the elements of politics and the second with the Indian Constitution and administrative problems. Sometimes these two parts are mixed up when it comes to a distribution of the topics between the two papers. In some cases—as in Calcutta, both the parts are included in the same paper, the other paper being devoted to economics. The following syllabus prescribed in Nagpur will give an idea of the topics included. The treatment is, of course, on the elementary level.

Paper I Civics

1. What is civics—its nature and scope, its relation to ethics, politics, history and economics
2. The beginning of social life—development of society and factors underlying social growth and progress, the influence of geographical conditions on the trend of the social life
3. Society and the state—family, tribe, nation—with special reference to social composition and the development and meaning of social gradation, classes, estates and castes, distinction between society, nation, State and government, elements of the state
4. The State and the individual—citizens and aliens, principles in the determination of citizenship, how citizenship is

acquired and lost, qualifications of a good citizen and hindrances to good citizenship, rights and duties of a citizen, individual liberty and law

- 5 Civic machinery government and its functions—essential and non essential, forms of government—unitary and federal, parliamentary and non parliamentary, is democracy the best form of government?, organs of government
 - (a) Executive—its constitution and function, permanent and political executive, real and national executive
 - (b) Legislature—its constitution and function, election and its different methods electorate and the franchise, how to improve the quality of the electorate?
 - (c) Judiciary—its organisation and function, its importance and need for its independence, federal judiciary and its functions
 - (d) The relationship between the three organs of government, the theory of separation of powers
 - (e) Central and local governments and their mutual relations
 - (f) Local self government (i) rural Janapada Sabhas—their constitution, functions and sources of revenue, Gram Panchayats and Nyaya Panchayats—their composition and functions, (ii) Urban corporations, municipalities improvement trusts—their constitution, functions and sources of revenue, the relation of local self governing institutions to the provincial government, the importance of the local self government and necessary conditions for its success
- 6 Civic problems
 - (a) Administration of law and justice (civil and criminal) principles in the administration of justice, redress of wrongs and theories of punishment, crime and its causes, problem of juvenile offenders, jails and reformatories
 - (b) Education systems of education in India, old and new, types of education—general, technical, etc., and their value, education and citizenship, intellectual unemployment and educational reform, the duty of government in respect of education of the citizen
 - (c) Sanitation, public health and medical relief importance of public health, unsatisfactory condition of public health in India, its causes, conditions necessary for its improvement, need for organized effort, development of a 'public health conscience', sanitary living and town-planning
 - (d) Works of public utility means of communication and facilities for transport, railways, waterways, airways, post, telegraph, telephone, etc., and their functions and importance

- (e) Agriculture and industry problems relating to agriculture, the causes of indebtedness and its cure, precautions against drought and famine, the co-operative movement with special reference to co operative credit, agriculture and rural reconstruction, commerce and industry
- (f) Nationalist movement nationalist movement in India from 1885 to 1947.
- (g) Social welfare and social reconstruction abolition of poverty and unemployment social insurance and eradication of disease and crime
- (h) Public opinion its nature, its agencies, and the role it plays in a democracy.

7 Civic ideals civilization and progress, nationalism and internationalism

In teaching the above topics special emphasis to be laid on Indian conditions

Paper II Constitution of the Indian Union

Books recommended M K Sen, *Elements of Civics*, S V. Puntambekar, *Bharatiya Lok Niti Aur Sabhyata*, 2 vols (Hindi), Chouhe, *Nagarik Shashtra ki Vivechana* (Hindi), S N Sen, *An Introduction to Civics*, P J Jagirdar, *Civics and Civic Problems*, S V Puntambekar, *Nagarik Niti* (Hindi and Marathi), *New Constitution of India* (Government Publication) (English, Hindi and Marathi)

Candidates will be expected to know the latest facts about growth and development of public administration in India

Apart from the books prescribed above, books extensively used in certain universities include N G Damle, *Civics for Beginners*, Lahiri and Banerjee, *Introduction to Civics and Politics*, G N Joshi, *The Constitution of India*, M. R. Palande, *Indian Administration*

B A Pass Level

It is usual for most of our universities to prescribe two papers in political science at this level. These papers are optional and have to be offered along with eight others chosen from among other subjects. The first of the two papers deals with political theory and the second with political organization.

The following syllabus for the two papers in Bombay gives [an idea of the scope of the subject at this level

Paper I Theory of Politics

- 1 Definition, scope and methods of politics and relation of political science to other social sciences
- 2 Fundamental concepts of political science such as State, society, government nation, institution
- 3 Theories of the origin of the State—force, divine right, social contract, historical or evolutionary means

- 4 Nature of the State—mechanistic theory, organic theory, Marxian theory, pragmatic theory, idealistic theory, pluralistic theory
- 5 Sovereignty—*de facto* sovereignty, *de jure* sovereignty, legal sovereignty, political and popular sovereignties, juristic and pluralistic theories
- 6 Rights and duties—definition and classification, how safeguarded and maintained by the State
- 7 Law—definition, sources and sanction, municipal law and international law
- 8 Ends or purposes of the State—relation between ends and means, State as end and individual as means individual as end and State as means, hedonistic, pragmatic and idealistic theories of ends of the State
- 9 Sphere of the State and functions of government—anarchism, individualism, socialism communism, fascism, syndicalism
- 10 Political obligation—explanation and justification of political obedience or allegiance to the State

Paper II Governmental Machinery

Detailed knowledge of the constitution of individual countries is not expected. The subject to be studied with reference to the principles of the various types of constitution

- 1 (a) Evolution of the State city state, feudal state, nation state, empire state, world state
(b) Forms of the State democratic state and authoritarian or totalitarian state corporative state
- 2 Classification of constitutions Aristotle's classification (normal and perverted forms), modern classification, written and unwritten flexible and rigid, unitary and federal, parliamentary and presidential
- 3 Comparison and division of powers Montesquieu's theory and its application to modern times, distribution of powers between central and local organs of government, theory of checks and balances
- 4 Executive structure parliamentary, presidential (single, plural titular or real and political and administrative), organization and functions
- 5 Legislature structure composition and functions, direct legislation, referendum and initiative
- 6 Judiciary organization, tenure and functions, rule of law and administrative law
- 7 Electorate mechanism of the democratic state, franchise, system of representation constituencies
- 8 Public opinion factors of its formation—platform press and radio political parties (single, two party system and multiple party system), role of parties in modern state

- 9 Local self government its importance and organization
- 10 Public services national and local
- 11 International relations and organization historical survey leading up to the present United Nations Organization.

The books generally read for these two papers are Laski, *Grammar of Politics*, Gettell, *Political Science*, Leacock, *Elements of Political Science*, Gilchrist, *Principles of Political Science*, Garner *Political Science and Government*, Joad, *Modern Political Theory*, D Burns, *Political Ideals*, Majumdar, *Political Science and Government*, Appadorai, *Substance of Politics*, Asirvatham, *Political Theory*, Strong, *Modern Political Constitutions*, the *UN Charter*

In some universities the second paper deals with the constitutions of foreign countries and/or that of India, the first paper including both the elements of political theory and organization. In Punjab University, for instance, the second paper concerns the constitutions of Great Britain, U S S R, U S A, Switzerland and India. The books suggested for this paper are Munro, *Governments of Europe*, Garner, *American Government*, Jennings, *British Constitution*, Brogan, *The American Political System*, *The Constitution of India*

In Banaras and Patna there are three papers in the pass course, the first two dealing with political theory (as in Bombay) and comparative politics (as in Punjab) and the third with local government with special reference to India, in Patna, and with the government and politics of India, in Banaras. The books on local government include Warren, *English Local Government System*, Maud, *English Local Government*, Gyan Chand, *Local Finance in India*, Robson *Development of Local Government*, Harris, *Local Governments in Many Lands*. Government reports relating to local government in India are also studied.

In addition to the papers in the pass course, in some universities special papers are prescribed for those desiring to secure the degree with honours. The period of training is the same as for the pass course. Thus, Punjab has three papers, viz (a) The nature and functions of the State (b) Indian constitutional development since 1772, and (c) Kautilya's *Arthashastra*, or Aristotle's *Politics*, or Plato's *Republic*.

Banaras provides for one additional paper for honours to be chosen out of four prescribed papers. These are (a) Ancient Indian polity, (b) Modern democracies, (c) History of political thought from Plato to the Utilitarians, and (d) Modern Indian political and social thought. Patna has an honours course of six papers, three of which cover much the same ground as the three pass papers. The other three are devoted to (a) Indian polity and politics since 1861, (b) Economic functions and organization of the State and (c) Selected texts, including Aristotle's *Politics* and Plato's *Republic*. The books recommended for (b)

are Cole *Practical Economics*, Hall, *Economic System of a Socialist State*, Robertson, *Control of Industry*, Simons, *Economic Policy for a Free Society*, Hayek, *Road to Serfdom*, Finer, *Road to Reaction*, Dickinson, *Principles of Economic Planning*, Wooton *Freedom under Planning*, and government and other reports dealing with planning in India

B A Honours or M A. Level

It is at this level that we really have a full fledged and independent course in political science. Though there is a large variety of subjects with a number of optional groups, it is possible to get an idea of the nature of specialization from the following topical survey

Political theory This subject invariably figures in the syllabus. The treatment is mainly with reference to modern political theory, though one generally begins with a criticism of the Idealist theory. The writings of T. H. Green (especially among the older teachers) and H. J. Laski have profoundly influenced the attitude of Indian teachers to problems of political theory, and this is reflected in the detailed study of these writers at this level. The last volume in the Dunning series, Coker's *Recent Political Thought*, Rockow's *Contemporary Political Thought in England*, Elliott's *Pragmatic Revolt in Politics*, Schumpeter's *Socialism, Capitalism and Democracy*, Lenin's *State and Revolution*, MacIver's *The Modern State*, Oakeshott's *Social and Political Doctrines of Contemporary Europe* and Barker's *Reflections on Government* are generally recommended, in addition to Green, Laski and Hobhouse, for this paper.

History of political thought The subject generally falls into two divisions: the one dealing firstly with ancient Indian political thought and, secondly with Islamic political thought, the other dealing with Western European political thought from Plato to the present day. It is quite common to insist on the detailed study of a classical Indian text and/or a European classic. The number of papers devoted to this subject varies. But generally speaking, no student can obtain his degree without having to do at least one paper on this subject. Sabine's *History of Political Theory* is widely used for the Western part of the subject. Ghosal's *History of Hindu Political Theories* is equally in demand for the Indian part. The classical texts prescribed, apart from those already mentioned under 'B A Pass Level', pp 113-14 above, are Machiavelli's *Prince*, Mill's *Representative Government or Liberty*, Hobbes' *Leviathan* (selected chapters), the *Federalist* (selected sections), and Rousseau's *Social Contract*. Kautilya's *Arthashastra* and the *Shukra Niti* are the Indian classics favoured.

Constitutional Development of India—from the Regulating Act of 1772, or from 1858 when the Government of India passed under the British Crown from the hands of the East India Company—

is also a subject of detailed study in the politics courses. Sometimes it is one part of a paper, the other part dealing with the present Constitution of India. Singh's *Landmarks in Indian Constitutional and National Development*, Keith's *Constitutional History of India* and A. C. Banerjee's *Indian Constitutional Documents* are generally used for this paper.

National government The emphasis during the pre independence days was on the constitutional relations between the government of the country and the British Government and on the relations between the alien government and the people of the country. It very often became a paper dealing with the national movement in this country. The study of the *political* as distinct from the *constitutional* aspect of government is a matter of very recent growth and its main lines of treatment still remain to be defined.

Regional and local government The government of the states and provinces of India has also been primarily treated from the constitutional point of view so far. But the case of local government is different. Here we have fairly detailed attention paid both to the constitutional and the political aspects of government. (Local government in India is known as local self government—a legacy from British days when municipal government was the only sphere of administration in which the people were left much to themselves.) The material used for the study consists mainly of government reports on the working of municipal bodies and of reports of committees on local administration and finance. The Local Self Government Institute of Bombay has brought together much information dealing with various aspects of local government in the country.

Public administration This is a comparatively new study in India. A paper on this subject invariably finds a place among the compulsory or optional groups at the Master's degree examination. But the scope and method of this study have not yet been settled. American publications such as White's *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* are widely used along with Finer's *British Civil Service*, Blunt's *I.C.S.*, Ghoshal's *Civil Service in India* and reports of committees like the Bombay Administrative Inquiry Committee. But both in the matter of well designed material on various aspects of public administration and in the delimitation of its scope we are still groping in the dark.

Public economics Under this title are studied the economic and social functions of government. This is a comparatively recent innovation in the courses in political science. When separation of political science from the general courses in history, economics and politics took place, there was a tendency to acquire an altogether exclusive field for study. But the initial tendency to avoid contact with the other studies is now on the decline and a more realistic attitude is being adopted. An idea of the scope of this paper can be had from the following syllabus prescribed by Poona University.

- 1 Principles of taxation, revenue and expenditure of the central and State Government Public finance as an instrument of economic policy
- 2 The State and public enterprise public utilities—methods of creation, operation and regulation The public corporation—its constitutional, political, legal and administrative characteristics Legislative control Relations with government departments and with consumers Advisory councils Control over prices and performance
- 3 Planning administrative problems of nationalized industries
- 4 The State and trade unions The Indian trade union movement The following books are recommended for the subject, with a note that only portions bearing on the syllabus are to be studied Pigou, *Economics of Welfare*, Dalton, *Public Finance*, Silverman *Taxation*, Adarkar, *Principle and Problems of Federal Finance*, Thomas *Growth of Federal Finance in India*, Burrough, *Theory and Practice of Economic Planning*, H S Morrison, *Economic Planning*, O S Franks, *Central Planning and Control*, A W Street, *The Public Corporation in British Experience*, Finer *Municipal Trading*, Rohson (ed), *British Experiments in Public Ownership and Control*, S and B Webb, *History of Trade Unions*, J R Commons and others, *History of Labour in the U S A* Lonzovsky, *Handbook of the Soviet Trade Union*, Shiva Rao, *The Industrial Worker in India*, Report of the Bombay Textile Inquiry Committee, Publication of the ILO, acts and reports relating to trade unions of the central and state governments in India

Comparative government A comparative study of foreign constitutions particularly those of the U S A, U K France, U S S R Switzerland, Canada, Australia, is everywhere undertaken Finer's *Theory and Practice of Modern Governments* is widely used and Bryce's *Modern Democracies* is still not out of date in its lucidity and breadth of vision Beard, Munro and Ogg (and Zink) are also among the favourite texts and Brogan on France and the U S A, Jennings on Britain (Cabinet and Parliament), Laski on the U S Presidency and Wheare on Federal Government are also read

Ancient Indian political institutions These sometimes form the subject of a separate paper though often it is combined with ancient Indian political thought The treatment of the subject is on the lines of the following works prescribed in Nagpur Jayaswal, *Hindu Polity*, Ghoshal, *History of Hindu Political Theories*, Beni Prasad *The State in Ancient India*, Mazumdar, *Corporate Life in Ancient India*, Dikshitar, *Hindu Administrative Institutions*, Sarkar, *The Political Institutions and Theories of the Hindus*, Mookerji *Local Self Government in Ancient India* Rhys Davis, *Buddhist India*, Fick, *The Social Organization in North East India in Buddha's Time* (Tr by S Mahtta), *Cambridge History of India* (Vol I,

Chapters IV, VI, X-XIII), *Manu, Institutes*, Kautilya, *Arthashastra* (Book III), Khuda Bux, *Islamic Civilisation*, W. Muir, *The Caliphate*, Hitti, *Origin of the Islamic States*

It may be noted that the absence of any continuous development of political ideas and institutions in India from ancient times to the present day makes a study of this subject as unrelated to our present life and institutions (except at the level of village administration) as would be, for example, that of ancient Persian political institutions. The influence of Western individualistic and democratic ideas on the present mental make-up of educated Indians is another factor tending to produce the same result. It is quite natural, in these circumstances, that work on ancient Indian political thought and institutions should have proceeded more from historians and scholars of Sanskrit and Oriental learning and culture than from those working in the field of political science. Beni Prasad was perhaps the only political scientist who was equally at ease and effective in both fields.

Parties, groups and public opinion Very little attention has been paid to these subjects in the courses in political science. In the paper on comparative government, some of these questions are discussed, but on a level of secondary importance. As for Indian conditions, it is only since independence that these problems have come to assume special significance. Under British rule, the differences between parties were not sharply emphasized and public opinion was organized primarily on the basis of anti-British sentiment. The negative role assigned to parties and public opinion in the government of the country resulted in the neglect of studies dealing with them. Scholars rather looked to foreign experience and studies in order to understand the importance of these aspects of political life and organization.

International relations Until recently, this was also a subject in which India's interest was rather remote. The dependent status of the country could never really enable Indians to feel the urgency of the problem. There is, however, a growing awareness of its importance and now the subject is included as one of the groups of papers in the Political Science course. Usually there are two, and sometimes three papers in it. One paper deals with international politics or international relations, particularly from 1919 onwards. It includes a study of the foreign policies of the major powers and of the concepts of balance of power and collective security. Factors affecting international relations, for example, geographic, economic and ideological ones are also discussed. The second paper is concerned with international institutions and their organization. The treatment is, mainly, with reference to the League of Nations and the U.N. The third paper, where it exists, deals with public international law on which Oppenheim's is the accepted textbook. Not much work

has been done on these subjects in India, and the books prescribed are usually those to be found in a similar course at a British university

Diplomacy and diplomatic organization This is also a subject newly introduced into our syllabuses. In Nagpur, it comprises the following topics

- 1 Nature and necessity of foreign policy Relation between foreign policy and domestic policy Authority and organization of the department of Foreign Affairs Organization of, and recruitment for, foreign offices and services of the U S A , U K , U S S R , France and India
- 2 Nature and necessity of diplomacy Its origin and development , diplomatic agents , organization of diplomatic service in general Training and recruitment of diplomats Qualifications and equipment of diplomats Their functions and powers Their grades A diplomat in social life
- 3 Consular services Their origin and development Qualifications for entry and method of recruitment Their functions and powers Their general organization
- 4 Diplomatic technique Formalities in the appointment of ambassadors and in taking charge of a post as ambassador Diplomatic cards and credentials Diplomatic privileges and immunities Organization of embassy and legation Issue of passports and visas

The books recommended are H Nicolson, *Diplomacy*, J W Foster, *Practice of Diplomacy*, E Satow *A Guide to Diplomatic Practice*, J P Heatley, *Diplomacy and the Study of International Relations*, Kurt London, *How Foreign Policies are Made*, J Tilley and S Gaselee, *The Foreign Office*, H Gibson *The Road to Foreign Policy*, Mowat *A History of European Diplomacy (1815-1914)*, Langer, *Diplomacy of Imperialism*, Soyder, *American Foreign Policy*

In Allababad, a separate course in diplomacy and international affairs has been recently introduced for the M A. degree-examination, which includes the following papers

During the first year (a) International affairs, 1815-1919, (b) Diplomacy—history and technique, (c) Study of one of the following countries Great Britain, U S A U S S R, China, France (two papers emphasizing two different aspects, viz (i) geography and economics, (ii) constitution, social and cultural life)

During the second year (a) International organization, from 1815 until today, (b) International law, (c) Study of one of the following regions (i) Near East and Middle East, (ii) Far East, (iii) Central European and Dalmatian region, (iv) America, (v) Western Europe, (d) One of the following languages French, Chinese, Arabic, Russian or Spanish

Lucknow, on the other hand, has instituted a one-year diploma course in foreign affairs and diplomacy (open only to first and second class M As, M Coms, etc.) The four compulsory papers include the theory and practice of diplomacy, international law, international economics and international relations. If any of these subjects have been already taken by the student for his M A, he is required to choose other subjects in lieu from among the following: International organization and institutions, Outlines of modern world history, Economic and military geography of the world, International trade, tariffs and commercial agreements, Diplomatic history of Asia, Diplomatic history of the U S A, Problem of population pressure and migration in Asia, History of modern Russia.

There is a viva voce examination in addition to four papers and a language test in a modern foreign language.

Governments of Asiatic countries have also attracted some attention in recent times, and at Lucknow and Nagpur optional papers dealing with these subjects have been introduced in the M A course. In Nagpur, for instance, there are two papers as follows:

Paper I Contemporary Constitutional History and Governments of Eastern Asiatic Countries

A general survey of recent history of Eastern civilization and institutions. Modern constitutions of China, Japan, Siam. Penetration of Western powers into the regions of Eastern Asia and specific problems of administration and government of those territories including the Philippines, Indonesia, Indo China, Malaya, Burma and Ceylon.

Books recommended: Emerson, Mills and Thompson, *Governments and Nationalism in South East Asia*, 1942, Kitazawa, *The Government of Japan*, Kalaw, *Self-Government in the Philippines*; Wu, *Government and Politics of China*, Post War Government in the East, edited by Taylor Cole and John H. Hallowell, Hesketh Bell, *Foreign and Colonial Administration in the Far East*, Vinacke, *History of the Far East in Modern Times*, Kohn, *History of Nationalism in the East*.

Paper II Contemporary Constitutional History and Governments of the Western Asiatic Countries and the Levant

A general survey of the recent history and a detailed study of the modern governments of Afghanistan, Iran, Iraq, Turkey, Egypt, Syria, Lebanon, Palestine and Saudi Arabia. The intrusion of Western powers into those territories and specific problems relating to their government and administration.

Books recommended: Young, *Egypt*, Toynbee and Kirkwood, *Turkey* (The Modern World Series), Hooper, *The Constitutional Law of Iraq*, Iqbal Ali Shah, *Afghanistan*, Middle East (Europe Publication), Kirk, *Short History of the Middle East*; Hans Kohn, *Nationalism and Imperialism in the Hither East*;

H Venkatsubiah, *Asia in the Modern World*, Hourani, *Syria and Palestine*, R C Ghosh, *Constitutional Developments in the Islamic World*, Elwell Sultun, *Modern Iran*, 1942, A H Hourani, *Syria and Lebanon*, *Great Britain and Palestine*, (Royal Institute of International Affairs)

It is quite possible, however, that universities will find it difficult to secure teachers sufficiently qualified to handle such papers at the M A level. Literature on the subjects can, of course, be obtained. But in the absence of actual contact with the peoples and areas studied, the subjects are likely to be treated in an unrealistic way. The same applies, more or less, to the teaching of international relations and diplomacy in view of the negligible contacts of Indian scholars with the working of international institutions and other services functioning in the field of international affairs.

Federalism has been included as a separate subject in the course on political science in some universities. The treatment is mainly historical and takes note of ancient, medieval and modern developments in the growth of federalism. The federal character of the Indian Republic lends significance to such a study.

Allied subjects Among subjects included in the syllabuses on political science, which do not strictly fall within the sphere of that science, can be mentioned anthropology, sociology, economic history, jurisprudence, constitutional law, constitutional history and economics. One, or at the most, two papers can be chosen from such subjects. The treatment is similar to what it would be in their respective main branches of study.

Books recommended for Study

It is not possible to deal with all the books recommended for study. Illustrative mention of some of them is made while describing the nature of the subject under different headings. But one thing which will strike anyone, even from the few illustrations given, is that there is far too little literature derived from Indian experience in the different subjects. The simple reason (perhaps a little over simplified) for this is that the inspiration for the study of political science has so far come mainly from outside. Western ideas of liberty, equality, democracy and representative government, which found willing adherents in this country, have been reinforced more by Western experience than by historical events and precedents at home. The desire to turn the political argument against the conquerors in terms of their own values and institutions may also have something to do with this non-indigenous aspect. But there is a growing awareness of this defect. To bridge the gulf is, of course, not a task that can be achieved in a day. In this present awareness lies the hope for the future.

An admirable survey of recent work done in political science in India will be found in *Contemporary Political Science*, 1950 (Unesco Publication No 426)

Choice of Subjects

In framing courses one likes to take a long term view. In the day to day life of a university it often happens, therefore, that there are no teachers to give instruction in particular subjects. The choice between different subjects in that case remains only on paper. The students are required to choose subjects indicated to them by the college or university teachers. In some universities the same teachers teach one set of subjects one year and another the next, 'covering' the whole syllabus in the course of a few years. But there is the danger, in this arrangement, of reducing the instruction given to a mechanical reproduction of summaries of the standard works. The teacher has then little time and no incentive to specialize in a selected field. Unfortunately, that is what happens in our universities.

Lectures

The number of lectures given for a paper varies. But, generally speaking, three lectures per paper per week up to the B A stage can be regarded as normal. At the M A stage, the variation in practice in different universities is greater, from one lecture to three lectures per paper are given, depending on the number of teachers available. There is no attempt to break up a paper into courses of 8 or 10 lectures per year dealing with specific aspects or topics.

Attendance at lectures is compulsory, and a student is expected to be present at between 66 per cent to 75 per cent of lectures in order to be eligible for admission to the university examination. Over a two year course at the B A stage, assuming a student does five papers in one year and five in another, there will be 15 lectures per week to attend. As there are about 28 weeks devoted to lectures during a year, this gives a total of 420 lectures to attend per year. On the same basis, a teacher is expected to deliver 84 lectures per paper during a year. In practice a number of holidays intervene during the university term and the actual number of lectures might thus be between 70 and 75 in a paper during the year. Considering that the same teacher is lecturing on a number of subjects at the same time, this does appear to point to an excessive strain on his capacities which is bound to reflect adversely on the quality of instruction provided.

Methods of Teaching

Lectures

Lecturing is the universal and in many cases the only method of imparting instruction in our universities. The size of the class

may extend to 150 students. The duration of a lecture is somewhere between 45 and 55 minutes. The practice of calling the roll of students in order to mark their attendance, either at the beginning or at the end of the lecture, is not uncommon. The lectures are rarely written out in full, though fairly exhaustive notes may be used by the lecturer.

Tutorials

The tutorial system is not in vogue except in a few universities. Only Aligarh, Allahabad, Andhra, Lucknow, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, Poona, Travancore and Utkal have adopted the system for the B.A. classes. The students are divided into batches of 8 (Allahabad and Poona) to 16 (Patna) and they meet the teacher in each subject weekly, fortnightly or monthly. Essays are written in advance and gone through by the teacher before discussing them in the tutorial class. In some cases essays are read out in the tutorial class. But the system does not work very satisfactorily or regularly everywhere. At the M.A. stage also all the above universities, with the addition of Bombay and Calcutta, attempt some kind of seminar work. Where there are comparatively few students the system works tolerably well. In other cases, it can hardly be considered as a normal or effective method of instruction. At the last conference of the Indian Political Science Association at Calcutta, there was unanimity among teachers of political science on the need for greater tutorial and seminar work in political science.

Library Facilities

The practice of buying books is not very common among our students. Inquiries made among teachers in various universities showed that, except in Calcutta, Punjab, Saugor and Travancore, where the practice of buying books is still very noticeable, this was the prevailing tendency everywhere. The dependence on the library, even for what may be treated as textbooks, is therefore, all the greater.

Most universities maintain good libraries, but in many of the colleges the facility is not adequately provided for. Issue of books for use at home (against a deposit in some cases) is generally permitted, but not encouraged. In some universities there are small departmental libraries for each subject, from which students can obtain books for home reading more easily than from the general libraries. Grants for the purchase of books have not hitherto been adequate. In some colleges not more than Rs. 100 a year are earmarked for political science. College budgets are often precariously balanced and nowhere is the library a fixed charge.

Practical Work

There is no provision for any practical work in political science except in Allahabad, where students taking the diploma course

in local self-government are required to spend a month with a municipality or district board in order to watch how it functions and submit a report. Some teachers of political science have expressed themselves in favour of such a method of bringing the student in contact with reality. It is also suggested that, as is done in economics in some universities, students of political science should be asked to undertake the investigation of some theme or project connected with their subject which should count for purposes of the final examination.

Cinema, Radio, Records, etc

Except in Aligarh and Baroda, where filmstrips are sometimes shown, none of those new methods is used for instruction in political science in our universities.

Recruitment and Position of Teachers

Recruitment

The system of requirement of teachers in political science, as in other subjects, differs for the three different types of institutions, viz. the university, affiliated colleges run by governments, and affiliated colleges run by private agencies.

- 1 In universities, a certain procedure which is now almost universal has been adopted in the matter of making appointments to teaching posts. Applications for these posts are invited by advertisement in the newspapers. When received, all these applications are classified and the information contained in them is put in the form of a tabular statement in the university office. This statement is then sent to the members of an *ad hoc* committee with a majority of experts in the subject concerned who do not belong to the appointing university. The vice-chancellor of the university is the chairman of the committee. The members of this committee are called upon to fix an order of preference among the applicants on the basis of which selected applicants are invited for an interview. The whole committee interviews the applicants and makes its recommendation, usually in the form of two or three names in order of merit, to the Executive Council or Syndicate of the university. It is not considered proper for the executive body to upset the order of preference arrived at by experts, unless there is some special reason such as an applicant's demand for a higher salary which the university is not prepared to pay, or the receipt of a confidential report regarding the conduct or teaching capacity of an applicant in his previous appointment. The system has on the whole worked satisfactorily so far.
- 2 In government colleges affiliated to a university, appointments are made by the Public Service Commission of the state concerned. It is the usual practice when interviewing candidates for teaching posts to invite the Director of Public Instruction

or some senior man in the educational service to sit on the commission in the capacity of an assessor. But the system is inferior to that followed by the universities in that, with a majority of non technical persons, it may happen that the commission judges the merits of the applicants by other than strictly academic considerations.

- 3 In colleges run by private agencies there is no uniform procedure followed in making appointments. The usual method of advertisement, interview, selection and appointment is not uncommon. But in several cases such considerations as the applicant's contacts with persons in the management, or being an old pupil, or preparedness to accept a salary lower than the minimum in the scale, do influence the decisions of the management in favour of a candidate as against others with perhaps better academic qualifications. In several universities an appointment made by the management is subject to the approval of the university authorities. This is primarily designed to ensure conformity with the minimum qualifications for a post laid down by the university. In colleges affiliated to Delhi and Nagpur universities, selection by the management can be made only after interview by a committee appointed by that same body but of which the representative of the university on the management is an *ex officio* member. The practice of having, in the first place, a representative of the university on the management of a college is not universally followed, nor does the university everywhere insist on having its representative on the selection committee for the appointment of college teachers.

Training of Teachers

There are no institutions for the training of college and university teachers. Academic attainments are usually the only criteria for choosing persons for appointment as teachers.

Emoluments of Teachers

This is a separate subject by itself and not one which affects the teachers of political science alone. Generally, a person may be taken to be attracted to the teaching profession not so much by its material rewards as by the opportunity it gives to engage in activity for which one has an aptitude and a sense of mission. Yet, with all that, the present emoluments of teachers in most colleges and some universities are too meagre to allow them peace of mind.

Utilization of the Services of Outsiders

Not much is being done at present to utilize the services of persons of learning or experience who are not professional teachers in the teaching of political science. There is great scope for this, if it is well planned. Contact with administrators, if not with administration, is bound to make for greater reality

But apart from occasional lectures, no attempt is made to profit by such persons. The isolation of the administrator from the cultural life of the community, which characterized the British system of administration in this country, is now breaking down and greater progress in this sense might be recorded in course of time.

Foreign Scholars

The question of inviting foreign scholars to stay at our universities has also been raised in recent years. So far as political science teaching is concerned, this would be welcomed by teachers in universities and colleges. The presence of a foreign scholar of repute at the university is bound to act as an incentive to local workers in the same field. But this is a matter where the government or international agencies must provide the financial assistance. The universities are generally too poor to afford the expense. Such visiting arrangements are likely to be more useful to teachers than to students.

Research

Relation between Teaching and Research

While all universities provide for the teaching of political science at one stage or another, research is undertaken only in about half of them. In the case of the affiliated colleges it is generally difficult for the teacher to conduct research on account of one or more of the following difficulties:

1. Too much lecturing work and in too many subjects.
2. No adequate library facilities in the college and none in the town where the college is situated.
3. No opportunities for discussion and 'thrashing out' ideas, the teacher finds himself the only or 'the most learned' expert in his own line.
4. No training in research methods.
5. Lack of interest in the subject.

In the unitary universities, on the other hand, there is greater possibility of research work being done, provided a department is established. Even there, however, the number of teachers in a department is not everywhere adequate to meet the needs of teaching. Specialization in any one line, therefore, becomes difficult.

Number of Teachers in University Departments

Except in Lucknow and Allahabad, where there are 11 and 10 teachers respectively in the department of politics, the number of teachers everywhere is small. Aligarh and Mysore have six each. In Calcutta there are 5 full-time and 13 part-time teachers. The latter work in some of the colleges in addition. Banaras has four teachers; Patna and Saugor have three each; Bombay

and Andhra two each. Nagpur has two full-time and four part-time teachers (from the colleges), Baroda, Madras and Ponna have one each. In Punjab there is a proposal to appoint a reader.

General Research Objective

Inquiries at the various universities where research work is conducted have failed to bring to light any definite formulation of an objective. In Aligarh, it is true, Islamic thought and institutions are emphasised to a greater extent than other aspects, and at Madras the work is mainly directed to public administration. Mysore is mainly interested in regional administration and in political thought while Patna directs its attention to local administration. But even in these universities this is more a description of what is being done at the moment, rather than an indication of any general objective of research. Perhaps the time for this has not yet come.

The Research Student

Students are attracted to research in political science primarily by the prospect of securing a doctorate. It is not always possible to find students who are also interested in the study of the subject for its own sake. The need to spend two to three years at the university after taking the master's degree without being able to contribute to the family maintenance—but on the contrary having to depend on the family oneself—prevents many a promising student from pursuing his studies further. Fellowships and stipends are few and far between. Nor is there the certainty of securing lucrative employment afterwards, the only line for which a doctorate is likely to qualify a student being the teaching profession. Unless, therefore, studentships and fellowships are instituted on a generous scale, it will be difficult to attract students, in sufficient number and quality, to the vast field of research in political science in India.

Facilities for Research

Most of the meagre work in political science carried out in India (except in a few studies dealing with local self governing institutions) is done in the library. But even for such type of work, the facilities available at present are not adequate. Apart from finance, the mere acquisition of much useful material is a difficult process. Reports and documents published by governments are not easily available and there is no system of library co-ordination and exchange to speak of. The depository library is still a thing unknown and bibliographical aids are non-existent. Field work is not undertaken owing to lack of funds and organization. Relief from lecturing work is not generally available for research workers. Facilities for travel are a luxury which cannot be even considered.

Co ordination of Research

Such research work as is being undertaken in this situation suffers from certain other handicaps which could easily be remedied if systematically tackled. They arise from lack of co ordination among research workers. One university does not know what is going on in another and there is much duplication of effort. The Inter University Board has taken some steps to provide this information by publishing lists of theses which have been accepted for various degrees. But welcome as this information is, it comes too late to be fully useful. The real importance of this information is when a teacher selects the theme, when he should know not only which theses have been completed but which are under preparation. The Indian Political Science Association has accepted the idea of publishing lists of themes of research in its quarterly journal, but information has not been forthcoming as a matter of routine, as it ought to be.

Co-ordination by means of the utilization of common bibliographical aids and the documentation of published material is also possible without involving much cost or elaborate organization. It is to be hoped that the Indian Political Science Association will apply its mind seriously to these questions.

A list of themes on which research work is being done or is under contemplation by both teachers and students in various universities is given below.

Aligarh The position of governors of Indian provinces 1858-1935. Indo Afghan relations in the nineteenth century. Muslim political thought and institutions during the Abbasid period. The *Kitah ul Kkaraj* of Abu Yusuf. Indo Muslim political thought in the pre Mughal period. Mughal political thought and institutions from Chingiz Khan to Timur (based on Persian sources).

Allahabad Growth of socialism in India. Influence of press in the government and public opinion in India from 1900 up to present day. Problems of minorities in India from 1900 to 1950. Religious background of politics in Ancient India in the age of epics. The development of neutrality with special reference to the two world wars. Gandhism—the political creed of the world. The political and social philosophy of Nietzsche. International arbitration. Development of the liberty of the subject in India. Comparative studies in Kautilya and Machiavelli. The growth and development of executive in Indian constitution. Municipal administration in Ancient India. Political philosophy of H. J. Laski. Diplomacy of Great Britain before World War I. Relations between India and the countries of the Far East.

Andhra Problems of federalism. Problems of local government. Social legislation.

Banaras Mandate system and trusteeship Legislative assembly of the UP

Bombay. Pressure groups in politics Social legislation Inter-relations of governments in India in the twentieth century Fundamental rights The problem of minorities Polity as sketched in the *Smritis* Administrative problem in nationalism Village self government in Bombay State Trends in modern federalism Press and public opinion in India Socialist movement in India Parliamentary democracy in India Maratha imperialism Ideological conflicts in Indian political life The end of the state in Ancient Hindu political thought. The liberal movement in India Nature of the Ancient Indian state A study of the personnel of governments in India A study of the work of members of the legislature in the state of Bombay and in Parliament.

Calcutta The framing of the Indian Constitution The problem of the Indian states since 15 August 1947 United Nations at work The social and political ideas of Laski The social and political ideas of Hobbhouse The social and political ideas of Bankimchandra.

*Lucknow*¹ Influence of Western ideas on the philosophy of Mahatma Gandhi Influence of Western ideas on the Indian Nationalist movement since 1858 Indo-Nepali relations Separation of judiciary and executive The working of the Federal Court Development of socialist movement in India Influence of Marxism on the ideas of Gandhi

Madras The organization of the government of Madras, the secretariat offices and district administration Local government in the Madras state Problems of liberty and authority. The Indian constitution Ancient Indian political thought

Mysore Centre and the units in the Indian Constitution Kautilya's political thought Problems of municipal administration

Nagpur. The role of the state in the organization of the socio-economic life of India during 1818-1935 Political thought and theory in the Mahabharata Social and political thought in Maharashtra (1857-1920) Social and political thought of Swami Dayanand Saraswati Origin and growth of political parties in India Regionalism in modern politics Social and political ideas of Lokmanya Tilak Social, political and economic ideas of M G Ranade Nationalism and communalism in Indian politics Indian democracy and the organization of political parties Political thought in Maharashtra from 1857 to 1948 The conditions of Indians abroad

¹ It has not been possible to secure complete information These are only a few of the themes on which work is being done

Patna Problems of public administration Contemporary political thought Supreme Court in India Marxism and Gandhism.

Poona Indian elections Political thought in Maharashtra Development of public services in India Party system in India

Punjab Rise of liberalism in India The interim government at work Municipal administration since 1885 The development and working of the legislature in India Development of political thought in India during the twentieth century Local organization and government in India

Saugor Indian civil service Political parties in India Gandhi and Indian National Congress—their relationship Theory and practice of the United Nations Administration of justice

Teaching and Research in Other Institutions

National Defence Academy, Dehra Dun

During the first two years of the three year period of training at the Academy, the elements of political science are taught to the cadets in a course dealing with 'civics, political science, economics and current affairs' There is a lecture per week for this course throughout the two years, which amounts to some 80 lectures in all Nearly 60 lectures are devoted to civics, politics and Indian constitution and administration This course is compulsory for all cadets

During the final year, for non science cadets, a course in political science or history (at the option of the cadet) is prescribed In the case of political science this course is designed as an intensive study dealing with political theory, recent political thought, public international law, comparative government and U N and its Specialized Agencies Six to eight lectures per week are devoted to it during one year Visits to meetings of political institutions such as local bodies, state legislatures, central parliament, courts of law and the like are encouraged

Each cadet is expected to spend about two periods per week on a project selected by him out of a list of some 100 subjects of social, scientific and service interest (which include themes relating to political life and organization) The cadet works under the supervision of a teacher, but does his report on his own He is encouraged to find out things for himself

Political science is included in the Department of History at the Academy

It is worth noting that this is the only institution where use is made of all the new methods of instruction such as radio, records, films and charts

Ind an Council of World Affairs, New Delhi

As its name indicates, this body is primarily concerned with the study of international relations and organization But it does not

exclude political theory from among its research activities. So far it has published a volume on *Fundamental Rights* by M. Ramaswamy and another on *War and Civil Liberties* by M. C. Setalvad, besides a symposium on the social and political ideas of Mahatma Gandhi. In the field of international affairs, besides publishing a number of monographs on various subjects, it has undertaken the preparation of four authoritative annual volumes relating to economic and political developments in Asian countries. They will be entitled *India in World Affairs*, *Speeches and Documents on Indian Affairs*, *Speeches and Documents on Asian Affairs* and *A Survey of Asian Affairs*, and will prove to be valuable works of reference for the student of political science.

International Law in the Law Course

The study of both private and public international law is undertaken in law colleges or law faculties of universities as a part of the course of studies leading to the degree of Master of Laws (LL.M.). But there is little that can be said about it from the point of view of the present inquiry. For one thing, there is no collaboration to speak of between the law and arts (including social science) faculties in our universities, and, secondly, there has not been much fundamental research in law and legal principles in this country, so that no development of anything like a general theory of law provides a common basis on which the political scientist and the jurist could meet.

Incidentally, it may be noted that there is a project in Bombay to introduce political science as a subject in the course of studies leading to the first degree in law. The compliment appears to be well deserved if we also note, in passing, that constitutional law and public international law have been included in the syllabuses in politics of many universities besides jurisprudence in some of them.

Conclusion

The study of political science in India is not yet properly correlated with Indian experience. The long period of political dependence of the country, with the resulting distortion of its political life, may account for the incongruity. The inspiration derived from contact with Western thought and institutions may account for the acceptance of Western experience in support of newly-acquired political values. A dependent country needs to idealize the virtues of independence—and propagate them!

With the attainment of independence has come the opportunity for creative work. The ideal has now to be realized. Attention must now turn to the actual conditions of life as the substance in and with which to create. A revaluation of values has to take place. That urge manifests itself in all fields of activity and thought. The study of political science is no exception to this general trend. No wonder then that there is a

growing awareness on the part of teachers of political science in India that they must devote greater attention to the collection and analysis of facts in political life and organization of the country than they have done hitherto; it is only then that political science will become a living and growing subject in our universities. This awareness must be regarded as a sign of hope for the future.

So far as the methods and organization of teaching are concerned, there is much scope for improvement. But these problems are not peculiar to the teaching of political science. They relate to the whole of our educational organization and centre mainly round the fundamental problem of finance. It can, however, be asserted with confidence that as the study of political science comes closer to the reality of Indian political life, so it will be able to attract much larger financial support for its development than it has done so far.

THE TEACHING OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

A Appadorai¹

Scope and Content of International Relations

It is no longer necessary, after the resolution on university teaching of international relations passed by the Preparatory Conference of universities at Utrecht in August 1948, to dwell on the importance of the subject. That Conference recognized the challenge to the academic world by the international character of present day society and agreed in effect that it was essential for universities to devote greater attention to the teaching of international relations if they were to fulfil adequately their great work of investigating and interpreting individual and social life.

The study of international relations is, broadly speaking, the study of the relations between nations, together with the forces and factors influencing those relations, the institutions established for the regulation of international intercourse and the settlement of international conflicts, and the principles by which those relations are, or should be, regulated. Constructively, the study should lead to an indication of the means by which a system of international relations might be created and best suited to serve the principle of international solidarity and to strengthen the guarantee of peace.

Stated thus, the field covered is a very large one. For our purpose we may analyse the main material under three heads—forces and factors which influence the relations between nations—briefly international politics, international law, international organization.

1. International politics. The factors which go to make for the power of a nation, and therefore, its influence in external relations are necessarily varied. Geographical position clearly influences not only defence requirements and policies but also a country's economic relations with other countries. India is an apt illustration. Her central position in the Indian Ocean determines in many ways her economic, strategic and political relations, especially with other Asian countries. The science of geopolitics developed in recent times—having itself primarily on the importance of space in an air age—illustrates, as perhaps nothing else can, the influence of geography on international relations. Demography, dealing as it does with the manpower problem, is integrally related to the concept

1. This paper was published by special permission of Unesco in the *Inda Quarterly*, Vol X, No 1, pp 52-71.

of power, which, in the ultimate analysis, is the core of international relations. The psychology of peoples—their character and attitudes, their cultural traditions and sympathies—is of prime importance in international understanding and international rivalries. Closely allied to this are the racial antecedents of peoples, and the racial aspects govern the attitude of peoples and the policies of governments—e.g. Hitlerite Germany and present day South Africa. Economic resources affect a country's international importance especially in the 'total war' of modern times, the economic resources of the U.S. are the chief factor contributing to the world power of that great country. Lastly, there is the influence of the system of government and political theory on the external relations of a country. The internal strength of a government affects its foreign policy. The influence of political theory on international relations is well illustrated by the influence of Marxism.

These various forces and factors influencing international relations involve primarily the study of diplomatic history and of the mechanism through which these relations are regulated—the ministries of foreign affairs, the embassies, consulates, etc.

2. International law. The regulation of international relations to accord with principles of morality and with a view to guaranteeing international solidarity and peace.
3. International organization. The efforts at improving international organization to achieve better international co-operation and security—through such institutions as the League of Nations and the United Nations and their Specialized Agencies—necessarily form part of the study of international relations.

International relations is not a separate academic discipline at all. It is, rather, a synthesis of various special subjects such as geography, economics, law etc. The argument is that the function of a university is not primarily to impart information—however important or desirable that information may be—but to train minds to acquire accurate information when needed and to exercise critical judgement upon the information when acquired. Such training can only be found in disciplined study—which international relations cannot supply, as the student has here at best a superficial acquaintance with many subjects, and the material is far too tendentious for the student to profit by it as a training of the mind.

Many social studies are interdependent, and each has to synthesize the studies of specialists—the closer connexion between politics and economics is obvious. It is true that the student of international relations has to depend on data supplied by many specialists, but at the same time he is engaged in making

a synthesis sufficiently differentiated from the synthesis of other specialists and of sufficient intellectual and social importance to form a distinct study. That synthesis is based upon a selection of those phenomena which bear upon a state's international position and external relations. To put it the other way the geographer, the historian and the demographer are not primarily students of international relations but the results of their research constitute a documentation which is of great importance to the specialist in international relations.

In the following pages an attempt is made to analyse (a) the provision in our universities for the study of international relations as an independent academic discipline leading to a degree or a diploma, and as part of the study of history, politics or economics, and (b) the position of research in the subject, finally, some conclusions regarding the present position of the study are summarized and a few suggestions made regarding the organization of the study in India.

General Position of the Subject in Universities

The attention paid to the study of international relations in India is recent, the beginnings go back at best to 1940. Considering the fact that India attained her freedom and, therefore, the responsibility for managing her external relations only in 1947, this earlier lack of interest is understandable. Even as it is such focusing of attention on international relations as exists in most universities done through the courses available in history, politics economics and law. Only one university Allahabad, has provided for a master's course in diplomacy and international affairs, and four universities have provided also for a diploma of one year's duration in international relations. Patna, Aligarh, Utkal and Lucknow (termed Diploma in International Relations at Patna, Diploma in Foreign Affairs at Aligarh and Utkal, and Diploma in Foreign Affairs and Diplomacy at Lucknow).

In one or two universities (e.g. Utkal and Lucknow) the natural desire of the local government to provide facilities for the entry of its citizens into the Indian Foreign Service has provided a stimulus for the introduction of a Diploma in Foreign Affairs, and in more than one university (Bombay and Utkal, for instance) the personal initiative and enthusiasm of the head of the department of political science at the university or a college has hastened the introduction of the subject in the university curriculum. These apart the general factor which explains the increasing interest in the subject is clearly the realization that, in the altered relations of India as a free country to other free countries in the world (instead of as a British dependency) it is of the utmost importance that graduate and postgraduate students should have an insight in the real nature of the world community, and how historically such a community has come into existence,

in what way it is institutionally organized, and what contribution India could make to the growth and strengthening of the new world community. There is a clear perception also of the general idea that, in this 'one world' age, academic insight in relation to social phenomena is incomplete without a proper grounding in the factors that govern international relations.

Master of Arts Degree in Diplomacy and International Affairs

As mentioned earlier, international relations as an independent academic discipline, an advanced course, is provided only in one university, Allahabad, which has a master of arts course in diplomacy and international affairs.

This course is normally a two year one to which candidates who had taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts (pass) Bachelor of Science (pass or honours), or Bachelor of Arts (honours) may be admitted, under slightly varying conditions. A candidate who has taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts may be admitted if he had offered the same subject in his B A course, though a candidate who had offered any other subject may also be admitted provided the head of the department of teaching in international affairs and the dean of the faculty consider the subject allied to one of the subjects offered by the candidate for the B A pass degree, provided also that he satisfies the head of the department concerned of his fitness for admission to the course. The conditions for the Bachelor of Science (pass or honours) candidates who desire admission to the course are that the head of the department and the dean of the faculty grant his application and that before he is admitted to the course he must also pass a written test in the subject to be conducted by the head of the department. A Bachelor of Arts honours candidate has to undergo only one year's course. It is, however, laid down that he must have passed the examination for the Bachelor of Arts honours in the same subject.

Some eighty students are now undergoing the course at the university.

The subjects of study include contemporary international affairs from 1919 to 1945, diplomatic history and technique from 1815 to 1919, a study of one of the following countries: Great Britain, U.S.A., U.S.S.R., China, France, with particular reference to geography and economics, constitution, social and cultural life, international organization from 1815 to the present day, international law, a study of one of the following regions: viz. the Near East and Middle East, the Far East, Central European and Danubian region, America, Western Europe, and one of the following languages: French, Chinese, Arabic, Russian, Spanish.

The books prescribed for study include Schuman *International Politics*, G. Hardy, *A History of International Affairs*, Freda White, *Mandates*, Parker Moon, *Imperialism and World*

Politics, Hayer, *Nationalism*, Lawrence, *Principles of International Law*, Oppenheim, *International Law*, Pitt Cobbett, *Leading Cases on International Law*, Sykes, *Persia*, Fitzgerald, *China*, Vinacke, *History of the Far East*.

Diploma in Foreign Affairs

Compared to the advanced Master of Arts course outlined above, the Diploma in Foreign Affairs is an elementary one. It is only a one year course at Patna, Utkal and Lucknow, and a two-year course at Aligarh—but as the course is covered during a period of six months in each of the two years and the course is so adjusted as to enable M A and LL B students who take subjects like history, economics and law to take the additional course in diplomacy concurrently with their M A or LL B, a detailed knowledge of the various subjects covered is clearly not expected.

Admission to the course in three universities (Patna, Utkal and Aligarh) is open to all graduates (including graduates in arts, science or commerce). In Lucknow first and second class M A's in modern history, political science, economics and M Com's and LL M's are admitted to the course.

The subjects taught for the course are not identical in all the four universities. The theory and practice of diplomacy, international law, international economics, international relations, international organization, economic and military geography of the world, and the outlines of modern world history are, however, more or less common to all. Alternatives to some of these are allowed in one or more universities from the following subjects: history of Near and Middle East or the Far East, diplomatic history of the U S A, diplomatic history of the U S S R, economic development of Great Britain, U S A, U S S R and India. The following are the chief books generally prescribed:

Theory and practice of diplomacy: J W Foster, *The Practice of Diplomacy*, M Hankey, *Diplomacy by Conference*, H Nicolson, *Diplomacy*, H Nicolson, *The Foreign Office*, Satow, *A Guide to Diplomatic Procedure*, Hill Ustay, *Diplomacy*.

International law: Pitt Cobbet, *Leading Cases and Opinions on International Law*, C Fenwick, *International Law*, W E Hall, *A Treatise on International Law*, Philip C Jessup, *A Modern Law of Nations*, T J Lawrence, *Principles of International Law*, L Oppenheim, *International Law*.

International economics: Culbertson, *International Economic Policies*, P T Elsworth, *International Economy*, R F Harrod, *International Economics*, Killough, *International Trade*, J E Meade, *Economic Analysis and Policy*, Young, *International Economy*.

International relations Raymond Leslie Buell, *International Relations* E H Carr, *International Relations since the Peace Treaties*, G Hardy, *A Short History of International Affairs*, Hoffman, *Pacific Relations*, R B Mowat, *The European State System*, Frederick L Schuman, *International Politics*.

International organization G N Barnes, *History of the International Labour Organisation*, L M Gundrich and E Hambrus, *An Introduction to the Study of the Charter of the United Nations*, P B Putter *International Organization*, Royal Institute of International Affairs *United Nations Documents*, Quincy Wright, *Mandates under the League of Nations*, A Zimmern, *The League of Nations and the Rule of Law*, 1918-1935

Economic and military geography of the world R Brown, *Principles of Economic Geography*, G G Chisholm, *Handbook of Commercial Geography*, L W Lyde, *A Primer of Economic Geography*, Earle, *Makers of Modern Strategy*, Philips, *Roots of Strategy*

Modern world history No set books generally prescribed

History of the Near and Middle East Abd ar-Razzak Al-Hasani, *Iraq, Old and New*, Carl Brockleman, *History of Islamic Peoples* J D Dunningham *Afghanistan*, N D Harris, *Europe and the East*, William S Hass, *Iran* Lord Llyod, *Egypt since Cromer*, M V Seton Williams, *Britain and the Arab States*, A J Toynbee and K Kirkwood, *Turkey*

History of the Far East Barger, *Government in Republican China*, P E Eckel, *The Far East since 1500*, K S Latourette, *A Short History of the Far East*, Harold S Qingley *Japanese Government and Politics*, Roberts, *The History of French Colonial Policy* Virginia Thompson, *Empires' End in South-East Asia*, P J Treat, *The Far East*, Charles Wolf, Jr, *The Indonesian Story*

Diplomatic history of the U S A Thomas A Bailey, *A Diplomatic History of the American People*, Samuel F Bemis *A Diplomatic History of the United States*, Samuel F Bemis, *The Latin American Policy of the United States*, A Whitney Griswold *The Far Eastern Policy of the United States*, W Lippmann, *U S Foreign Policy*

Diplomatic history of the Soviet Union Max Belloff, *The Foreign Policy of Soviet Russia*, W P Coates, *History of Anglo-Soviet Relations*, Louis Fischer, *The Soviets in World Affairs*, Frederick L Schumann, *Soviet Politics at Home and Abroad*

Economic development of Great Britain, U S A, the Soviet Union and India M H Dobb *Soviet Economic Development since 1917*, D R Gadgil, *Industrial Evolution of India*, Faulkner, *American Economic History*, W A Lewis, *Economic Survey 1919-1939*

The number of admissions ranges from 10 to 19 in the universities mentioned above ; it is too early, however, to judge as the courses were introduced only two to three years ago, but so far the course has not perhaps proved so popular as was expected. The fact that the diploma is not recognized by the Government of India as qualifying for admission to the Indian Foreign Service, and the inability of the holders of the diploma to get into that service merely on the basis of the diploma, have been important factors, in Lucknow, it is also said, perhaps the high qualifications required for admission to the course have proved a deterrent.

International Relations as Part of History, Politics, Economics and Law

Reference has been made earlier to the fact that such teaching of international relations 'as exists is in most universities offered through the courses available in history, politics, economics and law. We shall now consider the specific subjects taught in these courses at different levels (M A, M L B A honours, B A, LL B and the intermediate), and the syllabuses prescribed.

Master of Arts Degree¹

Among the subjects covered in the history course in various universities are History of Asia 700 B C to 1939, contemporary Asia from the middle of the nineteenth century to 1939, European history 1789-1945, history of the U S A 1865-1945, general history of Far East 1500-1919, ancient history of the Near East, the development of the great European nations 1814-1914, the modern world, international politics, international relations, modern political thought and government, Islamic civilization, and Islamic political institutions.

The syllabuses indicated and the books prescribed for the various subjects show that the student of history is expected to get a background knowledge of modern history, and of modern political ideas which influence international developments, as well as of systems of government in Western countries. Where provision is made for the study of regional histories, as of the Near East or the Far East, it follows that the students concerned acquire also a specialized knowledge of the history of those regions and some understanding of recent developments.

In several universities it is the politics department which is mainly in charge of the work connected with international rela-

1 For the Master of Arts courses (usually known as M A), international relations and allied subjects can be offered as part of the history course at Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Delhi, Gauhati, Lucknow, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmiana, Punjab, Patna, Saugor, Travancore and Utkal, as part of the politics course at Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Bombay, Calcutta, Lucknow, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmiana, Punjab, Patna, Poona, Rajputana, and Saugor, and as part of the economics course at Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Delhi, Gauhati, Mysore, Nagpur, Punjab and Patna.

tions and allied subjects, it also works in close co operation with the history, economics and law departments. At Lucknow, a student who takes up the politics M A can offer international relations international law, international organization, and history of North America from 1763. International relations is not a compulsory paper, but a good number of students take the subject. It is divided into three sections (a) general and European—the development of the modern state system, the alignment of the great powers before 1914, the peace settlements of 1919-23, the League of Nations, the foreign policies of Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy and the Soviet Union between the two wars, the realignment of the powers before 1939, the 1939-45 war and developments since then, (b) American—the Monroe Doctrine, Central America and South America, Pan Americanism, U S A's relations with China, Japan and the Philippines and the diplomatic history of the Panama Canal, (c) Far Eastern—the opening of the Far East, the Washington Conference of 1921-22, the Sino Japanese relations since 1914, the policies of the Soviet Union, Great Britain and France towards China and towards Japan, extraterritoriality and recent developments in South East Asia.

The development and structure of international organization includes a detailed study of the development of international organization and administration, and the constitution and record of the activities of the League of Nations, the United Nations and Specialized Agencies and auxiliary bodies, the Court of International and regional bodies such as the Pan American system and the Arab League.

The course on the history of North America includes a short history of Canada and the U S A from 1763 to the present day, dealing with the social, economic and political developments of the North American continent including their international relations and the colonial policy of the U S A.

Nearly half the course of studies in the Patna and Calcutta M A politics courses is devoted to international relations international policies, international government, public international law and the theory and practice of diplomacy.

The economics M A courses usually include one or more of the following international economics, international agricultural economics, labour organization and welfare abroad, international banking, international trade, foreign exchanges and external control and tariffs.

The syllabus for international economics at Delhi University is a good sample of the kind of topics covered (a) International and inter regional trade—theory of international trade, terms of trade international indebtedness and the transfer problem, equilibrium in the balance of payments, theory of protection, foreign trade and employment, quantitative restrictions on trade,

trade agreements ; (b) Technique of trade policy—multilateral trading system, world trade in the inter-war period, inter-governmental commodity control agreements, international cartels, future of world trade ; (c) Problems of international economic co-operation—commercial and economic policies, forms, methods and effects of international investments, stabilization of primary production, co-ordination of anti-slump policies, colonies and raw materials, and migration of population.

Master of Law Degree¹

Provision for the study of international law is at the postgraduate level (M.A. or LL M.) at Allahabad, Delhi, Calcutta, Lucknow, Madras, Nagpur, Osmania, Poona, Travancore.

In general, syllabuses are not written out for the M.L. degree examination ; the student is expected to get the general lines from the books recommended. Those prescribed for Travancore University may be cited as an illustration. For public international law the books include Oppenheim, *International Law* ; Hall, *International Law* ; Lawrence, *Principles of International Law*, and *British Yearbook of International Law* ; Pitt Cobbet, *Leading Cases and Opinions on International Law* ; and Tiverton, *Principles and Practice of Prize Law*. Books recommended for private international law include : Dicey, *Conflict of Laws* ; Westlake, *Private International Law* ; Foote, *Private International Jurisprudence* ; and Martin Wolff, *Private International Law*.

In the LL M. at Lucknow, a student is expected to study international relations and international organization in addition to public international law and private international law.

Bachelor of Honours Degree²

The subjects of study for the B.A. honours at the various universities in history, politics, and economics include European history

1 The degree is known as M.L. or LL M.

2 It will be useful to indicate here that the term 'Bachelor of honours' (usually termed the B A honours) is not used in an identical sense in the various universities. In general it does denote a more specialized study of a subject or subjects than is possible to, or is expected from, the B A student. In some universities it also denotes a less advanced study than in the M A ; in others it is more or less equivalent to the M A. In Delhi for instance, a B A honours student takes the same number of years as the B A. student, viz three years but offers different and more specialized papers ; an M A student undergoes a further two-year course and has a still more advanced course. In Madras, a B A honours student takes a three-year course after he passes the intermediate, while a B A. honours student takes only a two-year course ; the subjects he takes are also more advanced ones ; the M.A. student takes a two year course after he takes the B A, but takes the same papers and the examination as the honours student.

At the B A. honours level, subjects allied to international relations can be offered as a part of the history course at Annamalai, Andhra, Bombay, Delhi, Gauhati, Madras, Nagpur, Patna and Travancore ; as part of the politics course at Bombay, Delhi, Nagpur, Madras and Patna ; and as a part of the economics course at Annamalai, Andhra, Bombay, Delhi, Madras, Nagpur and Patna.

(1715-1920) modern imperialism, Islamic culture, Far Eastern history (1859 to the present day), history of the Middle East (1858 to the present day), Islamic history international relations (1919-45) History of the United States (1776-1939), the modern world, contemporary Asia, foreign policy (1870-1914), diplomacy and diplomatic organization, modern constitutions, modern political theory, international law, currency, banking and international trade

No elaboration of these subjects is attempted here, as the titles are more or less self explanatory, some details, however, of three papers prescribed at Nagpur are given below, as being somewhat exceptional and suggesting useful lines of thought for the purposes of this report.

The modern world covers mainly the period from 1901 to 1939, its scope is indicated by books such as the following for study Sloson, *Twentieth Century Europe*, Winston Churchill, *The World Crisis*, Bonn *The American Experiment*, Graham, *The New Governments of Central Europe*, Cruttwell, *A History of Peaceful Change in the Modern World*, and Vinacke, *History of the Far East in Modern Times*

In the foreign policy course, the foreign policy of Great Britain, France, Germany, the United States, Russia and Japan from 1870-1914 is covered Gooch, *France-German Relations* (1871-1914), Alexinsky, *Russia and Europe*; Akeji, *Japan's Foreign Relations*; Latane and Wainhouse, *A History of American Foreign Policy* (1776-1940), and Gooch and Masterman, *A Century of British Foreign Policy* are expected to be read

The paper on diplomacy and diplomatic organization (1870-1914) includes the origins and development of diplomacy, organization and consular services and technique of diplomacy, the books prescribed include such well known books as Nicholson, *Diplomacy*, and Satow, *A Guide to Diplomatic Practice* noted earlier

Bachelor of Arts Degree¹

At the B A level, the student is introduced to international relations through one or more of the following subjects modern Islamic history and culture, European history, political science, modern constitutions, world history, world civilization, Indo-Islamic and world history, history of the Far East, international law, the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies, public international law and relations, international trade, money,

¹ At the Bachelor of Arts (B A) level, the subjects allied to international relations can be studied as part of the history course at Agra, Aligarh, Andhra, Allahabad, Annamalai, Banaras, Gauhati Madras, Nagpur, Osmania, Punjab and Travancore, as part of the politics course at Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras Madras Nagpur, Osmania, Patna and Travancore, as part of the economics course at Allahabad, Banaras, Calcutta, Gauhati, Madras, Nagpur, Patna and Osmania.

credit and foreign exchange, modern Asian history and contemporary Asia

The subject headings mentioned show the kind of study expected, and no elaboration is attempted in this report. Some details of the syllabus and books prescribed for the politics course in the Travancore University, and for modern Asian history at Agra, may however be useful. The politics course in the Travancore University cover the following items: Nature, sources, and subject of international law, states as international persons, recognition of states, acquisition of and changes in territorial sovereignty, the high seas, exemptions from territorial jurisdiction, nationality, extradition. International government, the League of Nations and its organs, failure of the League to prevent war and its causes, the United Nations and its organs. International intercourse, diplomatic envoys, consuls and treaties. Disputes between nations distinction between legal and political disputes, the United Nations and settlement of international disputes. War as a legal institution nature and effectiveness of rules of warfare, effects of outbreak of war, warfare on land, occupation of enemy territory, warfare at sea prize courts. Neutrality conception and historical development of neutrality, duties of neutrality, neutrals and military and naval operations, contraband and blockade.

The books prescribed include J. L. Brierly, *Law of Nations*, P. H. Winfield *Foundations and Future of International Law*, W. E. Hall, *A Treatise on International Law*, Lawrence, *Principles of International Law*, Fenwick, *International Law*, Oppenheim, *International Law*, Stowell *International Law* and Osaner, *Recent Developments in International Law*. At Agra, the student of modern Asian history from the middle of the nineteenth century to the present day is expected to be conversant with an outline of the history of the Middle East and Far East: the books prescribed include Dr. George W. Keeton, *China, the Far East and the Future*, George E. Kirk, *A Short History of the Middle East* chapters on the Far East, China and Japan in *Cambridge Modern History*, and the *Chatham House Information Papers* on the region.

Bachelor of Law Degree¹

Elements of international law and conflict of laws is a subject for the LL.B. at Bombay, public international law for the Bachelor of Law at Allahabad (LL.B.), public international law (Lucknow) and private international law (optional at Lucknow), and private and public international law (Delhi).

The Intermediate Course

In more than one university (Aligarh, Annamalai, Banaras, Gauhati, Travancore, for instance) civics, modern history Islamic

¹ For the Bachelor of Law (B.L. or LL.B.) course subjects allied to international relations can be offered at Aligarh, Allahabad, Banaras, Bombay, Delhi, Lucknow, Osmania and Utkal.

history, history of Europe (1789 1919), and world history are included as subjects of study, with an introduction to certain aspects of modern European history, Islamic history, the working of the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies and India and the United Nations

Organization of Teaching

The organization of teaching international relations is according to the normal university regulations in force in India (which are more or less common to all subjects) in the social science group, and no special consideration is necessary. A brief indication of the following main points in the organization is attempted (a) the academic authorities who decide the content of the subject to be studied at different levels (M A M L diploma, honours, B A B L, intermediate) by outlining the syllabus and prescribing or recommending books, (b) the qualifications required of teachers, (c) teaching procedures, (d) library facilities and (e) the financial position

Academic Authorities

The control and general regulation of the standards of instruction and examination in the university and the responsibility for their maintenance is vested in an Academic Council which, generally speaking, includes the heads of the colleges and the more important of the teachers in the various subjects taught at a university. In most universities the initiative in thinking out and laying down the lines of approach, the topics to be covered and the pattern of emphasis is with the Chairman of the Board of Studies in a subject—politics, history, economics and the like. The head of the department at a university is usually the chairman of the board, if not, the chairman is selected from among senior professors who are also the head of the departments in the premier colleges affiliated to the university, his proposals are examined by the University Board of Studies in the subject which is a body of experts consisting of the teachers of the subject in the university and in colleges affiliated to it. The board makes recommendations which are considered by the Academic Council. If approved by the Council, they are implemented by the Syndicate (in some universities termed the Executive Council), the highest executive authority of the university.

Teachers

In general there is no distinct category of 'teachers of international relations', since international relations has not yet been recognized as an independent discipline (except in Allahabad, and to some extent as a diploma course in Aligarh, Lucknow and Utkal), and as teachers were earlier recruited so as to fit in with the needs and requirements of already existing disciplines in history, politics and economics. The general rule is that for

postgraduate teaching, a first class or second class M A degree in the subject handled is necessary, so that the teacher of international politics, for instance, should have had an M A degree in politics, international economics, and M A degree in economics international law, a Master of Law degree. A few universities, for instance Saugor, prescribe as a necessary qualification a first class degree in M A, preferably a Ph D in the subject. Nagpur, while requiring a first or second class degree, also lays down that at least five years' experience in teaching, preferably experience in teaching the postgraduate classes, is necessary before a teacher can handle the M A class. There is provision in Bombay for a specialist teacher of international politics, with relevant qualifications, but the post is vacant, as it has not been possible to secure such a specialist. Circumstances have made it possible for several universities (Aligarh, Madras, Patna, for instance) to have the subject taught by qualified teachers who have knowledge of the subject and also some research experience. But this must be considered in general a circumstantial advantage as distinct from the essential requirement resulting from planned recruitment.

All teachers endeavour (a) to remain abreast of the academic literature of their own and related subjects and (b) to keep themselves up to date on the flow of world affairs. The success with which they realize this is a topic on which the present writer would not like to hazard any opinion. He, however, feels that the large number of lectures which every teacher has to give on his subject or subjects (on account of the emphasis placed on lectures as part of teaching procedure and the shortage of funds, which together make it difficult to employ a large number of teachers) is undoubtedly an important handicap.

Teaching Procedures

Great reliance is placed on exposition of the subject from the lecture platform, in line with what is done in other subjects. Experiments are being made (as in Gauhati and Patna, for instance) with the seminar method on a limited scale. Students, in turn, lead discussions on topics of the leader's choice bearing on the subjects of their study. Students in several universities have opportunities for writing regular tutorial exercises, the teachers concerned go through these exercises with a view to giving any further possible guidance.

As to the distribution of emphasis on the various aspects of the subject, a study of the syllabus in international relations and cognate subjects at the various universities indicates that it is chiefly on instruction in the main outlines of recent international history, the history of political ideas in their international bearing, international organization, the mechanics of diplomacy, modern diplomatic history, international economic institutions and international law. Aligarh, Allahabad and Lucknow also

pay some attention to two other aspects the foreign policy problems of the United States and the U.S.S.R., and the special study of the international problems of three regions the Far East South-East Asia and the Middle East. It need not be added that the evolution and problems of India's foreign policy since 1947 receive special emphasis in every university. There is little attempt anywhere to evaluate specific solutions for the problems of mankind, and academic neutrality is in general maintained.

Library Facilities

Fair facilities are available at the larger and older university centres like Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Delhi, Poona, Lucknow and Patna for the use of recent and current books and documents. In addition to the library which every good college maintains, there are large and well equipped university libraries at Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay also the additional facilities provided by the United States Information Service and the British Information Service. In Delhi, there is the specialized library of the Indian Council of World Affairs in addition to the excellent facilities provided by the United States and British Information Services and the United Nations Information Centre, in Poona, the library of the Servants of India Society, in Patna, the well equipped Dr Sachchidananda Sinha Library render useful service. In all the centres mentioned above, current books and learned periodicals are easily available. The same optimistic report cannot be given about basic books and documents and other research publications which are out of print, or back numbers of learned periodicals these are often not obtainable and only a concerted effort by one or two institutions with ample finance can help this deficiency. Also, it must be added that from some of the smaller and newer centres of study (Aligarh, Saugor and Trivandrum) complaints are heard of the non availability of important recent books and current journals as well.

Financial Position

Finance is everywhere a problem. The finances of the teaching of international relations either as a separate academic discipline or through cognate subjects are provided out of the general funds of the university, the Executive Council having the power to allocate available funds to the several departments of the university. There are few other endowments or recurring earmarked grants for the department as such. Examples like the generous financial assistance recently provided by the Chancellor for books to the politics department at Aligarh (and therefore indirectly for books on international relations) must be considered as exception.

Research and Documentation

Since the study of international relations as an integrated academic discipline is itself in its beginnings in India, it is clearly too

early to expect the effective organization of research on the subject. The reports of universities show that the existing provision for research degrees in social science subjects like history, politics and economics (the M Litt, the Ph.D, the D Litt) can be fully utilized for promoting research on subjects relating to international relations as well, and some half a dozen research students are at work on problems such as international control of opinion as effected through the League of Nations, Russo-American relations, Indo-Nepalese relations, and the mandates-system. Obviously, however, this hardly touches the fringes of the subject.

The basic essentials of research into international relations in India will, in the present writer's judgment, take some time to develop. The two essentials are first, men and women who combine, on the one hand, academic temper and training in the history of international development, and the political and economic ideas which have been shaping world history during the past one hundred years and, on the other, direct knowledge of the social, economic and political conditions in other lands which can come only from living for some time amidst the people of those lands sharing their life. It is bookish and unreal for an Indian scholar to write authoritatively, for instance, about Japan or Indonesia or Iran—and draw conclusions on policy towards them without having lived for some time in those countries and getting steeped in their social set up or the historic traditions which influence men's lives and thoughts. The number of such persons available in India will undoubtedly grow as India's external contacts grow, until then emphasis is bound to be rather on the provision of information, descriptive surveys, and documentation than on more substantial and analytic contributions of a fundamental nature.

It will be useful in this context to mention the efforts that are being made by the Indian Council of World Affairs in the field of research and documentation. Set up in 1943 to provide a forum for the objective study of international relations, it has now some 1,800 members all over India, and is in close touch with all the universities, most of which are also Corporate Members of the Council. The Council has also recently established a Research Board with the Vice Chancellor of Delhi University as its Chairman, and leading economists, historians, and political scientists among its members to plan and guide research; its secretariat has a surveys and documents department with a director at its head and an information section to assist him. The Council also publishes a quarterly journal (a journal of international affairs).

Among the publications of the Council may be mentioned *Labour in South-East Asia*, edited by Dr P P Pillai, *India's Post-War Reconstruction and its International Aspects*, by Dr P S Lokanathan, *Basic Problems of Relief, Rehabilitation and Reconstruction*

in *South-East Asia*, by Dr J Russell Andrus, *The Basis of an Indo British Treaty*, by K M Panikkar, *Reconstruction of India's Foreign Trade*, by Dr B N Ganguli, *Indo Russian Trade*, by S N Siddiq, *Asia's Trade* by B G Gbate, *Regionalism and World Security Symposium*, *The International Position of India's Raw Materials*, by N V Sovani, *Economic Relations of India with South-East Asia and the Far East*, by N V Sovani, *Main Trends in Post War American Foreign Policy*, by Vera M Dean, *The Foreign Trade of India*, by H Venkatasubbiah, and *Indians Overseas*, by C Kondapi

Studies in progress include the following *Peace Settlements since 1945*, by Dr Girija K Mookerjee; *The Growth of U.S.-U.S.S.R. Tension in Asia (1945-1950)*, by Mr Burman, *The Structure of Asia's Economy* by Dr V K R V Rao, *India's Economic Relations with Far Eastern and Pacific Countries* (with special reference to trade, investment, shipping and migration) by Dr B N Ganguli, *The Foundations of India's Foreign Policy*, by Dr Bisheshwar Prasad, *India's Foreign Relations*, by a Study Group of the Council, *India and Her Neighbours India and Burma*, by W S Desai, *India and Molaya*, by N Ragbavan, *India and Australia*, by Frank Moraes, *India and China*, by Tan Yun Shan, *Indians in South Africa*, by Miss R C Manchester, and *Security and Defence Problems in India, Southern Asia and the Indian Ocean Region*, by a Study Group of the Council

On the surveys and documentation side, it has been planned to prepare and publish two series dating from 15 August 1947 entitled *Select Documents on Asian Affairs and India in World Affairs*. The Asian documents would be arranged in three volumes Vol I—*India* Vol II—*East and South East Asia* and Vol III—*West Asia (Pakistan and the Middle East Countries)*, each volume will have an introduction relating the documents to the social, economic and political background of the countries concerned. *India in World Affairs* is planned as a survey of India's external relations, the first volume covering the period August 1947 to January 1949 was published by K P Karuna-Karan in 1952. These two series have been planned in co operation with the Asian Relations Organization, the Institute of Pacific Relations, the Delhi University and the Aligarh University. An editorial board consisting of scholars from these institutions and of others from Chatham House, the University of Syria and the Hoover Institute, has been put in charge of the whole work.

It is hoped that these first steps taken by the Council in the field of research and documentation will prove of value to students of international relations.

Organization of a Degree Course in International Relations in India

So far, little headway has been made in teaching international relations as an integrated subject. This is perhaps an advantage, as with the re organization of the university courses now

contemplated under the Radhakrishnan Report a proper foundation may be laid for the new study, and the experience of the United Kingdom and the United States fully utilized.

There are very few trained scholars available in India. The supply of basic documents and research material is also small. Efforts must be made to increase both and in the meantime the course should be introduced only in a few universities on some basis of regional specialization, the introduction of a wider undergraduate course on the American model, even if desirable, can only be considered later when the supply of documents and books and qualified teachers is adequate.

The student in India who specializes in international relations at the postgraduate level must be enabled to have—in addition to a grounding in modern European history since the French Revolution (which is the basic knowledge required for an understanding of modern international problems)—an adequate knowledge of the history, the social background and the institutions of South East Asia, the Middle East or the Far East—with an adequate knowledge of one of the important languages of the region—Dutch, French, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese or Malayan.

On the basis of the foregoing considerations it is suggested that

1. An M A Course in International Relations be introduced in three universities, one of them offering a specialized course on South East Asia, a second on the Middle East, and a third on the Far East. Duplication must be avoided at this early stage.
2. The course should be of two years' duration.
3. The course should be open only to graduates who have specialized in history, economics and politics.
4. The course should comprise a study of the following subjects: geography—in relation to national power and international relations in general; international political relations since 1878; international economic relations; international law; international organization; India's foreign relations in the twentieth century, one of the following: (a) South East Asia—its history, social and economic background and political institutions; (b) the Far East—its history, social and economic background and political institutions; (c) the Middle East—its history, social and economic background and political institutions. One of the following languages: Dutch, French, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Malayan.

It is suggested that the B A course in history be so arranged that a student should have a basic knowledge of European history since the French Revolution, economics, economic history, political theory and political institutions.

As to the paucity of qualified teachers, it is suggested that (a) full advantage be taken of the Fulbright scheme in its application to India to get a few distinguished teachers of international affairs from America to stay a couple of years in India and help to start the course on proper foundations, and to send senior teachers from India to schools of international affairs at Columbia, Yale, Princeton, and the Harvard universities for training in the subject for two years, (b) the Indian Government be requested to set apart half a dozen scholarships out of the scholarships available for studies in foreign countries for training in international relations in the British and American universities; (c) the universities which decide to start instruction in international affairs as referred to above be requested to decide also on the particular region each would specialize on, and send one or two senior professors for a period of one to two years to the region concerned for field study and for getting in touch with scholars on the spot and to get background information regarding the region and the people. It is suggested too that the professors referred to be invited, after direct investigation on the spot, to write monographs on some such aspect of the social, political or economic life of the country visited by them.

As to the lack of basic documents and research material on international relations referred to above, early and considerable efforts must be made to make up the shortage. The Secretariat of the Indian Council of World Affairs is shortly taking up the compilation of a *Guide to Documents and Research Publications* since 1920, and it is hoped to make this available as early as possible.

It only remains to add that, following the recommendation of the Radhakrishnan Committee, the Indian Council of World Affairs will be very glad to co-operate with the universities in all possible ways for stimulating the study and teaching of international relations, in particular by their extensive contacts with research institutes and scholars in the field to get the best scholars to India for starting the courses referred to, to acquire the necessary documents and research publications, and generally for supplying information on questions relating to international relations.

CHAPTER V

THE TEACHING OF SOCIOLOGY, SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

by G. S. Ghurye

Sociology

University of Bombay

In India sociology owes its first appearance to the initiative of the Government of India. It was about 1914 that the then Government of India made an offer of a substantial annual grant to enable the University of Bombay to establish teaching departments or posts in the subjects of sociology and social sciences. The university in its endeavour to turn itself into a teaching institution—it was till then merely an examining body—sought the advice of famous educationists and ultimately sanctioned a scheme for teaching posts in sociology and in economics. In 1919 it started its Department of Sociology and Civics by appointing Professor (later Sir) Patrick Geddes as the professor of sociology. A year later an assistant professor of his choice was appointed to assist him. The university further announced that it would send a capable Indian student on Professor Geddes' advice to foreign countries as its scholar to study sociology and research methods. There were about a dozen students who then attended the lectures of Geddes. He had also organized a town planning exhibition much appreciated at that time. On Geddes' recommendation Mr G. S. Ghurye, who had won high university honours in Sanskrit and English studies, was selected by the university as its scholar to be sent abroad for sociological studies. In August 1920 Mr Ghurye proceeded to England as the university scholar. In London he joined the London School of Economics and worked for two terms with Professors E. J. Urwick and L. T. Hohhouse. Needless to say coming from Geddes he was in close touch with the Le Play school in general and Victor Branford in particular. Later Ghurye moved to Cambridge and put himself under the guidance of W. H. R. Rivers F.R.S., who was then not only the leading anthropologist of Britain but was also one of the few eminent psychologists who, accepting the main methodological contribution of Freud to the study of mind did not agree with him in his emphasis on sex. Mr Ghurye took his Ph.D. degree at Cambridge in the faculty of anthropology in 1923 and returned to India. He then went to Calcutta for some time to observe and study Bengal life and was brought into contact with the workers in the Department of Anthropology of the Calcutta University.

In 1924 on the retirement of Professor Geddes, the Bombay University appointed Mr Ghurye reader in sociology and to head

the department. Later Mr N A Thootis was appointed as a reader in the department

From the inception of the department, when there was no course in sociology in the university, a postgraduate curriculum in sociology, which could be offered for the M A degree examination, came into being. And the teachers in the department delivered regular lectures designed to cover the syllabus. In accordance with the scheme of studies then current in the Bombay University there were only four papers in sociology out of the total number of eight which every candidate for the M A degree had to take. The candidate could take the remaining four papers in either philosophy, history and politics or economics. He could not combine sociology with any other subject. Sociology came under the history branch where economics and politics were also placed. Though students in the philosophy branch were permitted to combine four papers in philosophy with four in sociology, in the constitution of the boards of studies, sociology figured under history, and sociologists had to seek election to the composite board of studies in history, politics and economics. Later the board was split up into two, and history with archaeology was made a separate board of studies. The other section of the old board came to be appropriately designated as the board of studies in economics, politics and sociology. Till today the same arrangement is current. Sociologists have to seek election to this composite board to take care of their subject. The result has not been favourable to the interests of sociology. Out of the eight members of the composite board of studies there is only one sociologist, all others at present are economists. Owing to vagaries of election for more than six months about a year ago, there was no sociologist on the board at all. In 1943, i.e. a quarter of a century after the inception of the Department of sociology and the introduction of sociology as a subject in the postgraduate curriculum, the courses and the syllabus were changed. Sociology became a complete degree subject by itself. Since then sociology can either be offered as complementary to the other subjects as before in four papers or as a complete subject by itself in eight papers.

Soon after the inception of the department, it became possible for candidates for the M A degree to submit a thesis in lieu of the four papers in sociology, working under the guidance of the two university teachers appointed in the department. Up to the time Mr Ghurye took charge of the department in June 1924 only one student had successfully completed his thesis and there was no student attached to the department. The university regulations were soon changed so as to enable a candidate to take his M A degree entirely in sociology under the history branch by submitting a thesis in lieu of the eight papers. Further changes in the regulations established the Ph D degree, which could be taken for the first time in 1936. The distinction

of being the first Ph D in the arts faculty of the Bombay University went to the sociology student who worked under Mr. Ghurye's guidance and wrote a thesis on the untouchable workers of Bombay City

In 1926 only two students had offered sociology papers at the M A examination. In 1951 there were 84 candidates who offered the complementary four papers of sociology. In addition, 28 candidates appeared with eight papers in sociology. The M A. class for sociology with eight papers is at present in the neighbourhood of 120. Since 1924, there has been an increasing number of students desiring to write theses for either the M A or the Ph D degree. Since the establishment of the sociology course students desiring to work for the Ph D degree are rarely admitted unless they have taken the M A degree in sociology either papers or by theses. The rush of students desiring to work for a degree has been so great that the authorities later put a ceiling on the maximum number of students that may be registered with a university teacher. No university teacher is normally allowed to have more than 10 thesis students under his charge.

During these years no less than 81 students successfully completed their thesis under the guidance of the university teachers of the department. The department was strengthened by the addition of two lecturers in 1942. Mr. Ghurye, the reader and head, was appointed professor and head in 1934 and 50 students completed their thesis under his guidance. Research guidance has, in fact, been a very prominent feature and a successful endeavour of the Department of Sociology.

Research gives not only training in research methods but also a keener insight into the problems and fields of study related to the subject. But it remains barren so long as it is not published, and it is to the credit of the Bombay University that in spite of great difficulties in the way of publication a fair number of theses have been published in book form and some as papers in the *Journal of the University of Bombay*. The first Ph D thesis in sociology, published in 1938, was on the untouchable workers of Bombay City. But the honour of the first thesis in sociology to be published goes to S V Karandikar's *Hindu Exogamy*, which was out in 1929. This was a thesis submitted for the M A degree in 1927 as the Ph D degree was not then instituted. 'The Katkaris', 'Changing views on marriage and family', 'Hindu art, its social setting', 'Whiter woman', 'Hindu social institutions', 'Marriage and family in Mysore', 'The farmer, his welfare and wealth', 'The Walsis, Life and living in the rural Karnatak', 'Hindu kioskship', 'Life in ancient India', 'Social background of Indian nationalism', 'Hindu woman and her future', 'Society and the visually handicapped', and 'Folk dance of Maharashtra' appeared in regular succession the first in 1934 and the last in 1950. All were theses accepted for the degree of M A or Ph D. Some were published in the form of papers in the issues of the

Journal of the Bombay University; others are under preparation for the press—'The nature of crime', 'Factory workers of Bombay City' and 'The Agris' may be singled out for mention. Among those not published are the following two works on psychological aspects—(a) 'Instinct and habit in society' and (b) 'Sentiments', three community studies—(a) 'Customs and manners of the Muslims of the United Provinces', (b) 'The Thakurs', and (c) 'Sind Hindu culture', one on the sociology of knowledge, 'The extent of rational thought in India', and one on group tension, the 'Social background of the Hindu Moslem problem'.

Research by the teachers in the department and research guidance of students has since 1924 been considered the most important function of the department. Mr. Ghurye has published at least 20 papers in different journals, some of which may be mentioned 'Dual organization in India', 'Kinship usages in Indo-Aryan literature', 'Population statistics of the Indian census of 1931', 'Age at marriage', 'Marriage and widowhood', 'Sex habits of a sample of middle class people', 'Birth control practice', 'Salary and other conditions of work of Bombay clerks', 'Sociology and social work' and 'The social process'. His book *Caste and Race in India* was published in 1932 and was revised and published in 1950 under the title *Caste and Class in India*. *Aborigines (so called) and their Future*, which appeared in 1943, put forward the view that the only solution of the aboriginal problem of India lay in the slow but progressive assimilation of the so called aborigines with the farmers and peasants of their adjoining districts, between whom and themselves there was the largest degree of cultural homogeneity. This view opposed the then prevailing attitude of experts that the best future for the aborigines lay in their isolation from the surrounding population. *Culture and Society*, his next publication, discusses the difference between civilization and culture and, after passing under review British literary and other criticism of the Victorian Age, shows how the recent trend of thought is towards studying human culture and history as a whole. The book also discusses the agencies that create culture and points out the significant role which universities have to play in the resurgence of culture. *Occidental Civilization*, which soon followed, takes up the theme of non contemporaneity of past civilized periods and explores it in relation to Europe. European civilization, which is polynational, is thus shown to be a unit pattern to which national civilizations have contributed their quota at varied intervals. His latest book is *Indian Costume*, published in 1951. It not only presents a complete history of Indian costume during 3 000 years and more but also propounds the thesis that there is a sociology of costume as there is a psychology of it. Mr. N. A. Thoosis, who received the degree of D. Phil. from Oxford University in 1923 for his thesis on the Vaishnavas of Gujarat, published his work under the same title in 1936 after revising it and incorporating in it his riper view on methodology. Mr. Kapaedia,

one of the lecturers in sociology, brought out his book, *Hindu Kinship*, which, in addition to being a masterly survey of Hindu social history over 2,000 years, attempts a sociological explanation of certain developments in the medieval Hindu law. It is in a sense a contribution to the study of the interaction of law and society. In the light of the sociological study of Hindu law he published a criticism of the recent proposals for its reform in his brochure, the *Hindu Code Bill*. In another more recent brochure he discussed certain aspects of Naga culture and raised the question of the propriety of certain anthropological doctrines.

Lucknow University

Lucknow University has been a teaching university from its inception. Its sociology course is only a year or two younger than that of Bombay University. But from the very beginning the department has been a composite one, called the Department of Economics, the head of the department being professor of both economics and sociology. Professor Radhakamal Mukerjee filled this post till recently and it is now held by Professor Dhurjatiprasad Mukerjee. Professor R. Mukerjee published a number of books on economic problems including food and population. He has also written a study of Eastern democracies and one on mysticism. In sociology he is best known for his work on regionalism and on social ecology. One of his pupils, Mr. Haikerwal, published an interesting thesis on Indian crime. Professor D. Mukerjee has written on Tagore, on music and on Indian history. His sociological works are *Modern Indian Culture* and *Basic Concepts in Sociology*. Both the undergraduate and postgraduate teaching being the concern of the university, the university teachers have to deliver a rather large number of lectures. They have little time for their own research, nor is research guidance possible to a very great extent, therefore the number of research students leaving Lucknow University after a research degree have been comparatively few.

University of Calcutta

In Calcutta University for some years it has been the practice to present two papers in sociology for the M.A. degree examination under economics and politics. Professor Benoykumara Sarkar lectured in this course. Professor Sarkar has published a number of books on economics, politics and history, and two sociological works. *The Folk Element in Hindu Culture* and *Positive Background of Hindu Sociology*.

Social Anthropology¹

Several years after the Department of Sociology was opened in Bombay University, the University of Calcutta started its Depart-

1 A special report on recent developments in the teaching of social anthropology is added to this more general outline (see p. 163).

ment of Anthropology of which Mr. L K Ananthakrishna Iyer was put in charge. Mr. Iyer was already known as the author of *Tribes and Castes of Cochin*, a contribution during the middle period of the project of Sir Herbert Risley, which had started with his *Tribes and Castes of Bengal* and Dr W Crooke's *Tribes and Castes of the United Provinces*, published in the 1890's. Dr Iyer's work appeared two years or so later than that of Edgar Thurston on *Tribes and Castes of the Madras Presidency* which came out in seven volumes in about 1907. In the third period of Herbert Risley's schemes came the *Tribes and the Castes of the Central Provinces* by R V Russell in 1916 and the *Tribes and Castes of Bombay* by R E Enthoven in 1921. The *Tribes and Castes Survey of Mysore*, of which some volumes were published, was revised by Dr L K Ananthakrishna Iyer in the 1930's and brought out with an elaborate introduction by von Eickstedt. Dr Iyer had close correspondence with A H Keane, then with Dr. Haddon and lastly with von Eickstedt.

In 1906 had appeared the epoch-making ethnographic survey of the Todas by Dr W H R Rivers which had such a strong influence on Indian students of social life. Dr. Sarat Chandra Roy, a lawyer practising at Ranchi in Bihar, and Dr Ramaprasad Chanda, who was in charge of the archaeological section of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, were two outstanding scholars who saw new light and worked to spread it among their countrymen. Half a dozen works of Roy, beginning with his monographs on Mudas and Oraons, testify to his untiring attempt to bring to the notice of his countrymen and fellow anthropologists the problems facing the so-called aborigines of the Chota Nagpur plateau. He was encouraged by both Haddon and Rivers. Chanda was well-read in Sanskrit and profoundly interested in ancient Indian art and history. Combining these interests with his new anthropological viewpoint he made an original approach to Indian history in his *Indo-Aryan Races* published in 1916. He also helped Iyer in the work of the new department of the Calcutta University.

On the retirement of Iyer, Dr Panchanan Mitra was appointed the head of the department and the post was made into a full professorship. On the sad and early death of Mitra, its present head, Kshilishprasad Chattopadhyaya, was appointed to the chair two or three years before the second world war. Professor Chattopadhyaya took his anthropological training under W. H R Rivers at Cambridge, where he took his M Sc degree in 1923. For a number of years before he came to the Department of Anthropology of Calcutta University as its head he worked as the Education Officer of the Calcutta Corporation. Since his return to anthropology Professor Chattopadhyaya has been carrying on work which clearly indicates that his view of social anthropology is precisely the same as that of some American anthropologists. It almost equates social anthropology with

sociology. That social anthropology cannot and should not confine itself to the life of primitive peoples alone but ought to include the study of more highly developed civilized societies was recently stressed in Britain by the new holder of the chair of anthropology at Oxford, Professor Evans Pritchard, in his inaugural lecture. Years ago this view was put forward cogently and enthusiastically by H J E Peake, a former president of the Royal Anthropological Institute of Great Britain. In India with its huge number of groups in all stages of culture there is no room for distinguishing and clearly separating social anthropology from sociology. It augurs well for India that if, in Bombay, sociology includes social anthropology, in Calcutta, social anthropology is extended to include sociology to some extent.

Dr. Dbirendranatha Majumdar joined the Lucknow University Department of Economics and Sociology to take charge of anthropology. He took his anthropological training at Calcutta and Cambridge. From Cambridge, where he took the Ph D degree, he returned to his post four or five years before the second world war. Recently he has been made a full professor and his subject is likely to be separated from the economics and sociology combination to become a separate department of anthropology. Anthropology is now a complete subject by itself which can be offered for the M A degree examination. He holds the same view of social anthropology, as does Professor Chatteropadhyaya. He has been actively connected with prison reform in the United Provinces and has included a whole paper on crime in the M A course. He has published a number of works, of which *Tribes in Transition* and his revised version *Affairs of a Tribe* are very well known. Others of his works which may be mentioned are *Fortunes of Primitive Tribes* and *Races and Cultures of India*.

The Zoological Survey of India, through the effort of Dr. Anandale, its director, got an anthropologist attached to it about the same time that Calcutta University started its Department of Anthropology. Dr B S Guha, who was the first anthropologist of the Zoological Survey, is a Harvard graduate. For some years now, Dr Guha has directed a more or less separate Anthropological Survey of India. Formerly the survey confined its activities to those which are properly the sub departmental work of zoology, viz physical measurements of human subjects. Recently Dr Guha has expanded the field of the survey work so as to coincide with sociological survey work and has undertaken to train selected staff for his own particular field.

In Madras, the Government Museum has since early in its history been fortunate to have officials interested in anthropology. For example, Fawcett's work on some of the South Indian tribes is well known. E Thurston was also connected with the Museum. Today a fully trained anthropologist is the superintendent of the Museum, Dr A. Aiyappan, who worked in London

under the guidance of Professor Raymond Firth and returned to India after receiving his Ph D degree. He has published valuable monographs on two or three South Indian groups.

Social Psychology¹

To Lucknow University goes the credit of being the first among Indian universities to designate to social psychology a separate place in the curriculum. The late Dr N Sengupta, who was trained in the United States of America, professed that subject with distinction during the early thirties of the century. His book, *Introduction to Social Psychology*, written in collaboration with Professor Radhakamal Mukerjee, is widely used in universities. His untimely death was a severe blow to the nascent discipline of social psychology. His successor Professor Kali Prasad is carrying on his distinguished tradition at Lucknow. Another new and vigorous centre has arisen at Patna University under Professor H P Maiti. Professor Maiti himself studied mainly at the Department of Psychology of Calcutta University. At Bombay there is no separate department of psychology but there is a whole paper on social psychology in the sociology curriculum. Social psychology is being more and more recognized as is evident from its inclusion in psychology courses in departments of philosophy as for the B A curriculum at Bombay. Dr Naidu of Annamalai University in his book on psychology illustrates this shift very clearly.

University lecturers, readers and professors are appointed through an *ad hoc* selection committee. Normally it includes at least one but more often two eminent experts from outside the particular university where the post is to be filled. Conditions of service vary as also the nature of work and the amount of time they have to devote to students. In Bombay where there is postgraduate work in addition to the two hours of lecturing and two hours or so which are reserved for consultations by students attending lectures, the number of hours a teacher is occupied with students' work depends on the number of research students the teacher has under his guidance. A research student is generally given one hour per week in the first six months of his research registration. Thereafter one hour a fortnight is the average. The amount of work involved leaves a fair amount of time for the teacher not only to read up his subject, but also to pursue research projects of his own. As there are two research assistants the pursuit of research is facilitated. The library facilities are not as good as one would desire nor up to the requirements of modern research. In Lucknow, as undergraduate lecturing also is done by the university teacher, he does not get sufficient time for his own research.

¹ A special report on recent developments in the teaching of social psychology is added to this more general outline (see p. 178).

In many Indian universities, the university teachers by their conditions of service are prohibited from doing any paid work without the previous sanction of the authorities, even though it may be in the academic vacations. Even examinationship in one's own subject in any but one's own university cannot be accepted without such sanction, though this is generally granted. When any other kind of work for which an honorarium or fee is received is undertaken, the university requires the teacher to make over half of his earned honorarium to the university. For sociologists there is, however, little opportunity for such work.

India has not had her Martineau or Nuffield; and sociology has failed to receive any financial help from private benefactors. Even the government has not seen fit to endow or help forward sociology. The avenues of employment open to students, who have done sociology by papers or pursued a course of research and turned out a good Ph.D. thesis, are the same as for students of history or literature. The special fields, where sociologists are likely to have openings, are the various social services and welfare activities. With three centres, Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi, training students in social work, these special fields, which are opening out more and more, have tended to be manned by the trainees of the social work institute. Nevertheless there is great enthusiasm in the student world for sociology. Given sociology departments organized under their own professors as separate units and some financial aid, it should be easily possible to double the number of students of sociology and researchers in two or three years. The progress of sociology in the University of Bombay, in spite of the fact that it is attached to the Economics department, clearly shows this.

APPENDIX IX

COURSES IN SOCIOLOGY, SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

University	Degree	No of papers	Proportion of total ¹	Teaching stage ²	University posts	No of students
Sociology						
Agra	B A.	3	3/10	Introduced in 1950	Nil	
Baroda	B A	2	2/7	University	One professorship instituted (1951)	None so far
Bombay	B A	2	1/5	College	Nil	105
	M A	8 (entire examination)	1/1	University	1 professor	28
		4 (half examination)	1/2	University	1 reader, 2 lecturers	84
Calcutta	M A	2	1/4	University	1 lecturer	
Delhi	M A	3	3/8	Social work College		61
Karnataka	B A M A ³	2	1/5	College	One professorship instituted (1951)	20
Lucknow	B A (Pass)	1 (compulsory)	1/4	University		384
	B A (Hons)	1 (compulsory)	1/5	University		10
	M A (Part 1)	1	1/4	University		146
	M A (Part 2)	2	1/2	University		24
Mysore	B A (Pass)	1 1/2	1/6	University	Professor of philosophy manages it	75
	B A (Hons)	1 1/2	1/8			8
Nagpur	M A	1 sociology, 1 anthropology, (under politics)			No provision of special teachers	15

University	Degree	No of Papers	Proportion of total	Teaching stage	University posts	No of students
Poona	B A ⁴					
	M A	4 or 8	1/2 or 1/1	University	1 reader in sociology and anthropology, 1 lecturer in sociology	10
Social Psychology						
Agra	B A	1	1/10	Introduced in 1948	Nil	
Bombay	B A	1	1/10	College	Nil	15
	B Sc	1	1/12	University	Professor of psychology and Dept of Psychology	
Calcutta	M Se	1	1/8	University		
Delhi	M A	1	1/8 ⁵			
Karnataka	B A	2	1/5	College		35
Lucknow	M A (Part 2)	1	1/4	University	Under Philosophy Dept	8
Mysore	B A (Pass)	1/2	1/18	University	Professor of philosophy	75
	B A (Hons)	1/2	1/24			8
Patna	B A.	1/2	1/16	University	1 Professor of applied psychology,	8
	M A or M Sc	(comp)			1 lecturer	
		2 (opt)	1/4	University		
Poona	B A	1	1/10	College		
Social Anthropology						
Bombay	B A.	2	1/15	Cultural Anthropology College	Nil	5
Nagpur	M A	1 sociology, 1 anthropology (under politics)	1/7	No provision of special teachers		15

University	Degree	No of papers	Proportion of total	Teaching stage	University points	No of students
Calcutta	B Sc		1/2 or 1/4	Anthropology University	1 professor, 2 lecturers, 4 asst lecturers, 1 part time lecturer	6 4
	M A M Sc		1/1			6
Delhi	M Sc, M A		1/1	Anthropology University	1 reader, 2 lecturers	17
Karnataka	B A	2	1/3	Introduced in 1950		
Lucknow	B A (Pass)	3	3/5	University		384
	B A (Hons)	1	1/5	University		8
	M A (Part 1)	1	1/4	University		74
	M A (Part 2)	1	1/4	University		24
Mysore	B A. (Pass)	1	1/9	University		75
	B A. (Hons)	1	1/12			8

1 By total is meant the total number of papers a candidate is required to prepare and pass at the particular examination. At the M A examination the papers are generally eight and the subjects not more than two. At the B A examination the papers are generally ten and the number of different subjects is between three and five.

2 By 'teaching stage' is meant the stage in the educational system at which the subject occurs. There are two such stages with which this report is concerned. The first stage is the B A or the B Sc. stage generally called the undergraduate stage. The teaching at this stage is conducted by the individual colleges. At residential universities like the Lucknow University even this stage is however the concern of the university. The students are prepared for the first degree either B A or B Sc. The second stage is the M A or M Sc. stage. The postgraduate stage in most universities now, is more or less directly the concern of the university. The teaching at this stage in many subjects is done by teachers appointed by the university and responsible to it.

3 To be operative, the course being the same as in Bombay.

4 Same as in Bombay, but not operative.

5 Included in the three papers of social work.

Other Diplomas

In addition to the above there are three diploma courses which include sociology and social psychology.

- 1 Calcutta University awards a postgraduate diploma in social work—the course includes both sociology and social psychology taught by university teachers.
- 2 J K Institute of Sociology and Human Relations, Lucknow, grants postgraduate diploma in social sciences. The course includes two papers on sociology and social psychology, admissions 16.

- 3 The Sir Dorab Tate School of Social Sciences, Bombay, grants its postgraduate diploma in social work. The course includes some sociology, admissions 32

Details of Departments and Courses at the Most Important Centres of Sociological Studies

Bombay

The university maintains the Department of Sociology with the staff mentioned above. It has been in existence for more than 25 years and has turned out a number of sociologists. The titles of papers for the M A examination with papers are general sociology, social biology, social psychology, Indian sociology, Advance sociology group, civilization and culture, advanced study of social institutions, marriage and family, property, rank, justice, Hindu social thought, Moslem social thought, education, crime, archaeology and ethnology of India.

In addition to catering to the needs of M A students preparing for the examination by papers, the department guides research students both for the M A and for the Ph D degrees by thesis. During the last 25 years 44 students took the M A degree by thesis and 36 took the Ph D.

Calcutta

Has had a Department of Anthropology for the last three years. The present personnel arrangement is given in the table above.

It has also a Department of Psychology.

Lucknow

The university maintains the Department of Economics and Sociology with two professors of economics and sociology, one professor of anthropology and nine lecturers. The one paper for the B A pass degree is entitled 'Social institutions and culture'. The one paper for the B A Honours degree and for the M A Part I examination is called 'Principles of sociology'. The two papers for the M A Part II examination are designated as advanced sociology and culture and civilization.

The department guides research students in economics, sociology and anthropology. During its existence from 1921 till 1950 it sent out 5 Ph Ds in sociology and anthropology.

Mysore

Sociology has been taught under the Department of Philosophy for more than twenty years. The three papers of the B A examination are named principles of sociology, Indian social institutions and social psychology, anthropology, and the two papers at the M A examination included under social philosophy are principles of sociology and Indian social institutions.

Patna

Has recently created a Department of Sociology.

CHAPTER VI

SPECIAL REPORT ON THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY¹

D. N. Majumdar

Trends in Social Anthropology from the Indian Point of View

The role that social anthropology has played in the understanding and interpretation of human culture by mapping out the steps and processes of cultural history has made it a vital link in the chain of integrated studies of human life and cultural progress. Social anthropology has stepped out of the antiquarian's attic into the realm of scientific thought. A variety of disciplines, old and new, learned and superficial, scientific and humanitarian, deal with man, and each has a recognized scope, claims and pretensions. Anthropology as a young science cannot claim the scope covered by the older ones. This will simply not be conceded, nor could anthropology win a victory by emphasizing its methodology, for no social science will accept tools or techniques which have not been tried with success in its own field of study. This explains how anthropology started with the study of those aspects of culture which were not dealt with by the other social sciences and of people who were primitive or unknown, so that anthropology became the science of the 'left-overs'. That is why a celebrated American anthropologist, Professor A. L. Kroeber, defines the scope of anthropology as a study of 'nations without records', of 'history without notable events', 'institutions strange in flavour' and 'languages that have never been written'.

Social anthropology started, in the words of the late Professor Bronislaw Malinowski, on a road that began in jungles, deserts and swamps, in the South Sea Islands, in the Andamans, in Africa, till today it has reached the centres of civilization. It is 'perhaps the greatest scientific odyssey in modern humanism'. It began with the study of savage society, with magic, myth and religion, rituals, totemism and tribal structures, with the forms of primitive marriage, human sacrifice and cannibalism and today views society in terms of needs, basic or derivative, attitudes, ethos, patterns or configurations, and evaluates the role that culture plays in the human struggle for survival.

Once anthropology felt conscious of its scientific status and of its utility as a contributor to human knowledge and understanding of cultural processes, it began to absorb more and more

¹ The present report is to be regarded as a supplement to Professor G. S. Ghurye's general report on the teaching of sociology, social psychology and cultural anthropology.

interests, till it even encroached on some older 'preserves'. The analytical and critical evaluations of social anthropology have brought it dangerously near other legitimate social disciplines. Yet, on record, anthropology, by a comparative study of human social institutions, has thrown new light on many a vital aspect of our cultural life—on nationality and citizenship, chieftainship, and kingship, on rank, justice and government, slavery and serfdom, caste structure, clan organization, shamanism and priestcraft and on the effects of the clash and fusion of cultures and the contacts of races. Anthropology today is a study of races, past and present, of cultures old and new, of peoples at all levels of cultural development.

The effectiveness of a science is evaluated by the manner in which it can solve problems and point to directions for further inquiry. Social anthropologists have studied the institutions of the savage which enable us to trace the roots or the nexus of our cultural life, and the migrations of peoples, with or without the sword. They have shown how traits of culture such as agriculture, domestication of animals, megalithic cults, the zodiac, the alphabet, the story of the flood, mythology, cosmic beliefs, fables and folk songs have been diffused over vast areas of the globe, even in the early periods when transport and communications were at the lowest point of development. The useful arts, tools, palæolithic and neolithic metals, paintings and decorations have been found to pass from land to land, and centres of cultures have shifted in response to the pulsations of the climate and the genius of peoples. The savage races have been found to behave rationally under conditions in which they lived and cultural progress has been found to be correlated with personality development resulting either from struggles for survival or from contacts with alien cultures. Modern anthropology claims an organic interrelation of cultures and finds co-operation and competition, 'reciprocity and mutuality' of obligations as cementing forces that emerge from man's creative roles, or in his efforts to survive and nourish values traditionally acquired.

The anthropological approach has been developed in the social sciences and applied anthropology is interested in the solution of multiple problems of adaptation, acculturation and assimilation of one culture by another culture. In the study of community, for example, social anthropologists are painfully aware of the clash of interests with other social sciences, but here as elsewhere anthropologists have worked on the principle of 'live' and 'let live', so that a better integration with sociology and psychology has been the avowed aim of anthropology, as instanced by the progress of 'action research' and in the study of 'national character' and 'swaddling'. In any case, an anthropologist must not shirk the responsibility of clarifying the concept of community, for it is he who has a wider grasp of realities in the context of community organization and cultural practices, but

he must aim at a clear integration with the economist, ecologist and the rural urbanist, to forge a common approach and effectively solve fundamental problems of the human society

On the positive side, anthropology has several achievements to its credit—and it has new objectives. Race relations have worsened owing to politico economic reasons, lack of understanding and pseudo scientific generalizations. A thorough search is needed into the nature and reality of human variations, and into the kinship of man. We hear of disturbances in Israel (Palestine), about conflicts between religious groups, between the white man and the brown man in the East Indies, between the French and the Annamites in Indo China. We hear also of race riots, the antagonism between the Britisher and the Africans of lynching of negroes, restrictive covenants, discrimination, immigration laws, refugee problems, segregation and Zionism. These are problems that cannot be solved by administrative action or by war, hot or cold, but by a scientific approach. Mushroom shibboleths and slogans, the penumbra of suspicions, and 'ingroup attitudes'—all conspire to embitter human relations. Therefore the problem of culture change, the dynamics of adaptive processes and the stresses and strains arising therefrom, need to be scientifically studied in the context of basic social structures and values of peoples. An objective appraisal of cultural problems is the task of the anthropologist. How can peoples of different appearances mutually unintelligible, speaking different languages and adopting diverse attitudes, work in peace, harmony and understanding, how can the 'coloured races live with the white and yet feel that they share the same cultural heritage', how can the various cultures be levelled up and if necessary dovetailed into an integrated pattern which will harmonize different ways of life and yet keep the values of each?

Today anthropologists are subjecting the concepts of democracy, freedom, communism and capitalism, competition and planned economy to anthropological analysis, and these concepts are being interpreted in the context of human relations and of the vital issues of the day. If collective security is the crying need at present, it is for the anthropologist to clear up misunderstandings, remove suspicions, and eliminate fear, unless this is done, even top level organization will fail to bring results. To give a concrete example, an anthropologist studies kinship structure and usages pertaining to it. He finds out how kinship links persons together by convergence of interests and sentiment, and how it controls and limits those conflicts that are always possible as the result of divergence of sentiment or interest. The lessons derived lead him to study the presence or absence of co-operation or conflict, and through such studies he evolves a working hypothesis for a *modus vivendi* which will unite larger groups and control and limit our group interests and prejudices.

The battle between the social sciences and the humanities is becoming crucial, and anthropologists are now being divided into camps, with definite leanings to one or the other. The humanities are known to have failed in broad generalizations of human potentialities, and a reaction against them is understandable. Value judgments are on the emotional plane and as such, they fail to convince critical minds. Social sciences developed later than the humanities, and are fundamentally applied sciences—the goal being welfare or service to humanity. As Professor A. L. Kroeber holds, 'economic theory not only does not integrate with general scientific theory, but is incompetent to do so. Hence the need of a social approach'. In the value ratings of the past, prejudices were a big load for the humanities to carry, and social scientists were not drawn to the study of value systems, for fear of being misunderstood. This attitude is, one would think, a timid acceptance of the anthropologist's view of his own field of study. As Professor Kluckhohn says, 'we anthropologists have talked about religion, discussed values, but have been too timid to use the latter term'. Science is not concerned with values, and 'anthropologists want their science to rank with other sciences, so "values" have been deliberately left out of the anthropologist's catch'. Values and cultures are not similar, but they have been regarded as such. The essence of culture is selection, and selection naturally involves value judgments, these, then, must not be excluded from anthropological treatment.

Contacts with civilization have produced tension and conflicts, and initiated processes of adaptation, acculturation and assimilation. Why and how such processes work can only be understood in terms of values, mores or *etbos*, how far value judgments are related to physiological conditions, how value is related to behaviour, are topics that anthropologists simply cannot ignore, so that value systems present a legitimate sphere of anthropological studies in the social sciences today, as yesterday in the humanities. It is in the above context, that we would like to review the progress of social anthropology in India.

Development of Social Anthropology

Social anthropology in India has not kept pace with the development in England, on the European continent or in America. Although social anthropologists in India are to some extent familiar with the work of important British anthropologists, or of some continental scholars, their knowledge of American social anthropology is not adequate. British influence is predominant on Indian social anthropology, obviously for historic reasons. Exclusive allegiance to the English language has had a tremendous effect on the shaping of Indian intellectual life and any assessment of the trends in any discipline during the last 150 years must necessarily take into account British inspiration, preferences, peculiarities and antics.

Sir William Jones, an eminent man of letters and a Britisher who was, however, no anthropologist, initiated anthropological studies in India, as early as 1774, i.e. several decades before anthropology in the West emerged as a separate and independent discipline. In his inaugural address to the Asiatic Society of Bengal, he defined the scope of its inquiries as comprising the entire field of studies concerned with 'man' and 'nature'. William Jones never talked about 'anthropology' yet he initiated the study of man. The Asiatic Society of Bengal which devoted itself to these studies published occasional papers in the society's journals and memoirs, and these along with the work of missionaries, travellers and British administrative officers are the earliest anthropological studies. It would be difficult to discover any specific trend in anthropological studies of the time, for no underlying philosophy or theory can be detected in the early writings. Interest in the ancient literature of the country, its philosophy, its antiquities, and the excitement that is associated with discovery or the thrill of observing the strange, the unfamiliar and the exotic in human life, was perhaps the main impulse behind the early writings on anthropology.

Early in 1807, the directors of the Honble East India Company initiated a statistical survey of the Presidency of Bengal. It was considered very important for the administration of the country. Francis Buchanan was appointed by the Governor General in Council to undertake an ethnographic survey, 'to inquire into the condition of the inhabitants of Bengal and their religion'. The result of the survey appeared in three volumes in 1838, under the title *History, Antiquities, Topography and Statistics of Eastern India*. Buchanan planned, so we are told, 25 volumes on Indian ethnography, but it is not known whether they were all compiled, for only the three volumes remain. In 1820, Walter Hamilton published *A Geographical, Statistical and Historical Description of Hindustan and Adjacent Countries*, based on a collection of all printed documents accessible to the public and all the manuscript records in the archives of the Indian Board. Another work by Hamilton was *The East India Gazetteer*, a companion volume to the two published earlier. Thornton's *Gazetteer* was published in 1854. Campbell published his ethnology of India at the same time, 'to assist', as he mentioned, 'both government officials and private persons in making classified and descriptive tests in such a uniform nomenclature and arrangement that it may be afterwards possible to weld together the whole of the information thus obtained'.

After the first war of Indian independence, what is called the Indian Mutiny, the responsibility for the administration of India passed to the British Crown. Among other things this change resulted in a more efficient civil service of which almost all members were of British origin and keen on improving the standards of administration. An intimate knowledge of the

people of the country was indispensable to good government, and civil servants in India were anxious to gain an understanding of Indian society, its customs and practices. As a result, several monographs on the tribes of India were published, which continued to appear till the thirties of the present century. These monographs followed a particular pattern and are similar to those available for the Assam tribes. The material presented was not confined to ethnography but aimed at a general acquaintance with the area's resources, ecology and economics, with a brief description of customs and practices of the people. The monographs were supplemented by the administration sponsored census reports in which data were collected to give a brief outline of Indian society in a series of monographs on castes and tribes in some of the provinces and an all India series of district gazetteers containing information on geography, history, geology, flora, fauna, ethnology, etc.

The studies mentioned above were not aimed at developing theory nor were they scientific studies of the groups or communities about whom they were written. The sole motive, it appears, was that of providing a more efficient administration. The authors of these publications, monographs, census reports, the gazetteers, were not trained in anthropology, and they followed the commonsense point of view in their interpretation on the hastily collected and 'half baked' data. There were exceptions, no doubt, but they were few. Commonsense is always a cultural product, and in the words of L. Bloomfield, 'what masquerades as commonsense is in fact highly sophisticated and derives at no great distance from the speculations of ancient and medieval philosophy'. Kluckhohn categorizes commonsense as bad theory, for its structure is so much beneath the ground of consciousness that unwarranted doctrines tend to be uncritically accepted. Thus, we find that many of the conclusions arrived at by the administrator anthropologists were hastily drawn or distorted by an ethnocentric bias. These studies, almost all of them judged in the context of present day social conditions and by the requirements of social science, have no more than an historical value. To take one example, Latham in 1859 published his *Ethnology of India*. Latham had no personal acquaintance with India, and the statements he made about some of the tribes, as pointed out by S. C. Roy, were not only 'inadequate' but also 'inaccurate'. Latham identified the Oraons with the Uryias, one an aboriginal tribe the other a proud and cultured people whose contribution to Indian temple art and culture has been considerable.

The meagreness and obvious inaccuracy of the details contained in the various government publications and those of the early ethnographer who were interested in Indian life and culture, was recognized by the Government of India. It was therefore decided to take steps, on the basis of the statistics recorded in the census of 1891, towards collecting more precise data regarding

the castes and tribes of India. The volumes on the castes and tribes of the several provinces which today represent our basic ethnographic data were all projected as a result of the Government of India's circular to the Provinces. In fact, during the next thirty years ethnographic literature in India consisted mainly of glossaries of tribes and castes or volumes of classified material on the people of the country, collected and presented for the purpose of acquainting the administration with the location and distribution of the principal tribes or castes, and their queer or special habits.

Thus the first phase of Indian ethnography was initiated by W. Jones. The achievements of this period were the publication of the various series of ethnographic works on the people of Bengal, U. P., Madras, Punjab and North Western Frontier Provinces, Central Provinces, all projected and compiled by European civil servants. Rai Bahadur Hiralal, L. K. Ananthakrishna Iyer, and a few other Indian scholars produced some volumes on Indian ethnology which also followed the same pattern as the government sponsored ethnographic series. During the period from 1871 to 1920 Indian writers contributed a few articles and books, among them special mention may be made of Rev. Lal Behari Dey, B. A. Gupte, Mangal Das Nathubhoy, Jevonji, Jamshedjee Modi, Natesha Shastri and L. K. A. Iyer. Of the European authors who have contributed to Indian ethnological literature during the formative period we might mention Forsyth, Rev. A. Campbell, Major Waddell, Bompas, Brigg's, Col. Shakespeare, Col. Gurdon, J. Coggin Brown, S. W. Kelup and A. D. S. Dunbar. V. Ball's *Jungle Life in India*, Forsyth's *Highlands of Central India*, Grievson's *Bihar Peasant Life*, Campbell's *Religion and Folklore of India*, Bompas's *Folklore of the Santhal Parganas* and Brigg's *Chamars* are publications which still occupy an important place in Indian ethnography, although the material presented was neither exhaustive nor wholly accurate.

A new constructive phase was initiated by S. C. Roy, towards the second decade of the present century. Roy was a Bengal lawyer who came to practise at Ranchi. His professional activities brought him into intimate contact with the tribal people, who were then groaning under the hardships of exploitation by alien landlords. Roy studied some of the tribes of Chota Nagpur intensively and acquainted himself with the work of British anthropologists. His was probably the first attempt to co-ordinate field work with anthropological theory and, in that sense, Roy has an abiding place in the history of ethnological theory. Roy did not put on any school tie, and he was no unreasoning camp follower. His monographs do not show exclusive allegiance to any particular theory or to any school of anthropological thought. In an article in *Man* (September 1938) entitled 'An Indian Outlook in Anthropology', Roy referred to the various well known drawbacks of the evolutionary and diffusionist

theories. He also expressed his dissatisfaction with what he understood to be functionalism, and condemned it as a narrow and impotent approach which entirely disregards evidences of evolution and borrowing. However, he praises the functionalists' realistic method of presentation, and affirms his faith in the organic unity and dynamic nature of culture, both of which are conceded by the social anthropologists of today.

More interesting, however, are Roy's views on the methodology of research. He emphasized the importance of learning the language of the tribe or of the people under study, he did so himself. This is again in the tradition of Boas, and of Malinowski. The harm done by field teams who work through untrained interpreters or who write up data collected by others, should be forcibly stated. Books on Indian village life are being produced by authors who have never seen a village nor are they acquainted with village life, they base their observations on ethnographical data collected by a team of assistants making surveys by means of questionnaires. A very able writer on ethnography, for example, has three assistants, who submit 10 pages of data every day so that at the end of the month he has 900 pages of typescript, which needs only the magical touch of the author's capable pen. Of course, we do realize the difficulty of learning the tribal dialect, and some field workers, otherwise very competent, may not learn it, if they have not the necessary competence for languages, there are, nevertheless, other ways to control field work, and first assignment of a field team should be to equip the interpreter and train him, if he is to be an effective medium for the collection of data. Roy further stressed the need of acquiring objectivity by self-identification with the people to be studied, whom one must approach with sympathy and understanding. Roy advocated the concentrated contemplation of facts, scenes and incidents, as well as contacts with outstanding personalities, to help acquire an understanding of the *Dharma* or spiritual nexus of people which integrates, sustains and nourishes their culture. He stressed meditations (*dhyana*) and the acquisition of intuition as essential for a true understanding of another people and their cultural life. The diversity of the Indian scene presented to Roy the question of a *modus vivendi* and he wanted to see unity in diversity through 'sympathy'. He was essentially a humanitarian by choice and practice. It was in order to be a true humanitarian that Roy chose to be an anthropologist.

About the time Roy's work was coming to be known, the University of Calcutta introduced the study of anthropology into its curriculum (1920). Sir Ashutosh Mukerjee, with characteristic foresight and initiative, gathered round him a group of able and experienced workers and planned an independent course in anthropology for the degree examinations of the university, which later on was extended to the intermediate stage of study. The people responsible for promoting the academic study of anthro-

polology in India were L K A Iyer, B A Gupte, R P Chanda, H C Chakladar and P Mitra, all teachers of the Department of Antbropology at Calcutta, and well known workers in various fields of the study of man. With the introduction of anthropology by the University of Calcutta in 1920, began the second phase of Indian antbropology, which Penniman calls the constructive phase. Those of the graduates who continued their anthropological studies after leaving the university came under the influence of Roy, some went in England, mostly in Cambridge. Frnm other parts of the country also some scbnlars went in study at Cambridge or under Malinowski in London. At Cambridge they came under the influence of Haddon and Rivers, at London under Seligman, Malinowski, Keith and Elliot Smith. Marnett attracted Indian students at Oxford. During the thirties and early forties, Malinowski's functionalism was the predominant trend in Indian anthropology, and consequently there is to be detected a pre-occupation with the concept of culture, social antbropology and total approach to culture. Also in rare cases one may detect a psychoanalytical approach, integrated with functionalism. Of course, owing to the paucity of workers in antbropology, most anthropologists of the earlier decades were general anthropolo- gists who contributed to social structure and religion, physical anthropology and prehistory. Roy's readership lectures at Patna University, the first Indian university to institute a readership in antbropology, were on the principles and methods of physical anthropology.

The later years of the pre-war period (i.e. the years preceding the second world war) were occupied by a feverish constructive urge and we have several important monographs, on Assam, Bihar, C P, and Madras and a few treatises on Indian social structure. E A Blunt, G H Ghurye, N K Dutt and J H Hutton, among others discussed the origin of the caste system, while Hutton, J P Mills, Grigson, Haimendorf, Elwin, Aiyappan and Maumdar published monographic studies of some of the important tribal groups in India. The study of culture contacts received scientific appraisal, and the 1931 census published a number of articles on the primitive tribes of India as affected by contacts with civilization. The initiative was not lost, for one finds during the thirties, competent and documented studies of cultural affinities between the Naga culture and that of the Oceanic Island, those of the Khasi culture as affected by contacts and the potato crop, the Munda tribes and their cultural contacts, acculturation and maladaptation of tribes and their discomforts. Kinship came in for a good deal of analytical treatment, at the hands of K P Chattopadhyay and Irawati Karve. Functional influence is found in the analysis of marriage rites and familial relationship, and several articles by Indian anthropologists showed how 'economic' forces in conjunction with social and sexual requirements tend to make certain forms of marriage more frequent than others.

Exogamy, dual organization and tribal organization also figured in the literature on Indian ethnography, and folk culture, proverbs, folk songs, myths and riddles, games and pastimes also received the attention of Indian ethnographers

The postwar era has brought about a few significant new trends in Indian social anthropology, viz (a) a discernible tendency towards specialization, (b) a growing awareness of American contributions to the subject, (c) an increasing emphasis on the applied role of anthropology, and (d) interest in structure approach

Specialization is a universal tendency in contemporary anthropology. Goldenweiser spoke of A. L. Kroeber as the last general anthropologist in America, and England has none. In India, anthropologists touched upon all aspects of the study of man, and thus the old generation did not identify with any particular approach or particular field of specialization. This emphasis on general anthropology is now on the wane and Indian anthropologists, particularly the younger section, are leaning more and more towards specialization. Such a reorientation is indicative of the speed with which knowledge about human cultures is accumulating. Further, the demands upon an anthropologist these days stress deep and intensive, rather than extensive, knowledge. Experience has shown the heavy strain imposed on the scholar by an interest in all branches of a subject between which there is little organic unity but rather a polarity.

The different branches of anthropology have, in fact, more in common with other disciplines than they have among themselves. Accordingly in contemporary India specialists are growing in number—specialists in social anthropology or physical anthropology or prehistory—although the elder anthropologists are still for the most part general anthropologists.

As a consequence of Indian independence, and America's world involvement policies, i.e. the aid and development programmes, and owing to the increasing facilities available for exchange of professors and students between India and America, there has been an increasing influence of American anthropology. Indian anthropologists are today more aware of the advances in methodology and the broadening of the scope of their discipline achieved in Europe and in America and the outstanding work of competent anthropologists has influenced Indian anthropological thinking. American anthropology, particularly in its applied aspects, has become a force in world anthropology of today. Indian problems have been studied and are being studied by many first rate anthropologists in America, who are co-operating and collaborating with their Indian colleagues. In association with the Anthropology Department of Lucknow University, Cornell University maintains a regular Indian project with several research centres (the finances coming from the Ford and other foundations). The emphasis upon personality and community studies is to be attributed to American initiative. In some of the

centres run by the Cornell Lucknow research project, assignment has been made for medical examinations of families, in both lineages, and the use of medicines to cure prevalent diseases together with instruction in sanitation, housing and public health. Nutritional surveys have been undertaken to determine what are the deficiencies of diet and what can be done in realistic terms to remedy these deficiencies. Action programmes have included the provision of information on improved agricultural tools and practices, and the introduction of incubators and improved methods in poultry raising. The relationship between the introduction of modern technology and the process of social and cultural change, among other vital problems of the countryside, are being seriously studied. At the same time existing theories, hypotheses, concepts and methods relating to the field of applied research are being tested. Here, the needs of inter disciplinary studies have been admitted and team studies are being organized to deal with methodological problems.

In the context of the vast programmes of national reconstruction undertaken by the Government of India, the anthropologist is being increasingly though one feels not sufficiently, called upon to assist with his knowledge in the formulation of tribal rehabilitation measures and in the assessment of the impact of community projects on rural life. Several states have already established Tribal Research Bureaus and Rural Analysis Centres, and the Planning Commission is interested in having its schemes valued in terms of social consequences and response.

We have pointed out earlier that 'functionalism' had deeply impressed Indian social anthropologists during the last two decades. In recent years this influence has been on the wane and the viewpoint of the structural anthropologists, Radcliffe Brown, Evans Pritchard and others, appears to have a greater appeal to some of the younger social anthropologists in India. There is no Indian social anthropology. The same is true of sociology in India. There is no Indian sociology. The emphasis on physical anthropology in India, which has been the slogan of the Government Department of Anthropology for over 25 years, had nearly elbowed out social anthropology from the Indian scene. A sudden awareness of the importance of social anthropology and of its applied role has stimulated study and research in social anthropology but the emphasis has been on empirical research. The gap between theory and practice is becoming increasingly felt. In the context of planned development of the country, theoretical studies have not enough scope. This may lead to a crisis in social anthropology. A warning has come from British anthropologists, particularly from Evans Pritchard, and Indian social anthropologists must weigh the pros and cons in formulating their plans for expansion.

Teaching of Social Anthropology

Anthropology is taught at the graduate and postgraduate levels

at only a few of the more than thirty Indian universities. More significant, from the point of view of orientation of research, is the fact that not all of the few universities which teach anthropology have developed definite research programmes. The reasons for this lack of research-mindedness are not far to seek. Firstly, except at the universities of Calcutta and Lucknow, anthropology has not been taught for longer than 10 years, and often it is taught only as a minor subject in the sociology departments, as for instance, at Bombay and Patna.

Calcutta University, the first Indian university to offer courses on anthropology, opened its course in 1920. The researches conducted at this university fall into various categories. There is the study of the social organization of Indian tribes, mainly on the lines of the studies of W. H. R. Rivers, supplemented by the study of the religious life of the same people. There is also a definite attempt to study Indian palaeolithic industries, with the usual interest in physical anthropology. A recent trend has been the study of such problems as famines, labour conditions, rehabilitation and education in urban Bengal. There has also been a detailed attempt at the study of the development of architectural styles of Indian temples.

Lucknow University has taught anthropology for nearly thirty years, although there has been a separate, independent department for only five years. The researches conducted by this university are characterized by a simultaneous development of physical anthropology and cultural anthropology. Anthropometry and serology have received more attention than at any other Indian university. Similarly a definite approach has been developed to the study of tribal cultures which may be designated as cultural anthropology rather than as social anthropology. The main theoretical orientation has been a functional one, but the usual type of functional studies, relating a segment to the whole of the culture, have not been attempted. Instead, holistic studies have been emphasized. Recent trends have shown a keen awareness of the advances made by American anthropology. There has been a simultaneous development of interest in rural community studies and in the sociological study of some urban problems. Lucknow has emphasized the study of tribal problems and measures of tribal welfare as well as the relation of applied anthropology to public policy. There have been no contributions to the study of Indian prehistory.

The Deccan College Post Graduate and Research Institute, Poona, has developed a 'totalitarian' approach to the study of problems from an anthropologist's point of view. Significant contributions have been made to the study of Indo-European and Dravidian philology, prehistory of the Gujarat and Narmada valleys, anthropometry of Gujarat, kinship organization of India and some urban problems of Gujarat.

Osmania University has a nine-year old sociology and anthropology department. It has developed more or less on the lines of contemporary British social anthropology, the researches of the department being exclusively concerned with the social organization of certain tribes and rural communities in the adjacent cultural regions.

Delhi University has had an anthropology department since 1947. Although the university teaches physical anthropology, social anthropology and prehistoric archaeology, its special emphasis is on physical anthropology. The study of social anthropology is made from the physical anthropologist's point of view.

Madras University specializes in the comparative study of matrilineal civilizations in India. Some South Indian tribal studies have also been conducted.

At Bombay and Baroda universities and recently at Agra, anthropology is taught as a sub subject in sociology departments. Bombay has developed the studies of Hindu social organization (caste, family, marriage and kinship) and has approached the tribal problems differently, regarding tribal people as simply 'backward Hindus'. At the Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda British social anthropology has a strong influence. In field work there has been so far an exclusive interest in village community studies. Only pure research is regarded as creditable, and applied research is considered as an 'extraneous' interest.

Nagpur University does not teach anthropology, but has sponsored researches into the social organization of some Madhya Pradesh tribes.

The universities of Gauhati, Bihar and Patna have started anthropology classes quite recently, and as yet it is not possible to discern definite tendencies typical of any of these centres.

On the whole, it may be said, that at the Indian universities anthropology has grown more on the lines developed outside India, in England and in America, than on its own. Of course, it has not been a thoughtless imitation. Indian social anthropologists have adopted the approaches evolved outside India. It is because of this salient feature, that Professor Kroeber has said that India has listened to England, America and to herself. The result, we may say, has been a synthetic approach. The latest trend is towards specialization and an increased concern with the solution of cultural and human problems in whatever field they may arise.

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CHAPTER VII

SPECIAL REPORT ON THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY¹

H P Maiti

Introduction Object of the Report

In preparing this paper at short notice, the author has mainly drawn upon the following three sources of information recent university calendars containing given courses of studies, replies to a brief questionnaire which was addressed to different universities (only a few replies have however, been received), his visit to most of the universities two or three years ago as a Rockefeller Foundation grantee for collecting information about teaching and research in psychology

The report attempts to indicate existing teaching structure, the nature of courses, research interests, and some trends and problems in the field of social psychology in India. It covers information that was available to the author relating to 28 universities and a few independent professional and research institutes

Growth of Social Psychology in India

Psychology had been a part of the philosophy course for a long time in India, before it was recognized as an independent subject in 1916. That year, Calcutta University appointed Dr N N Sengupta (Harvard Ph D) as the first professor of psychology. Main emphasis in the courses organized by him was on the laboratory study of mental processes after the Titchenerian theory. Physiological, child and animal psychology were also included. Abnormal psychology received emphasis a few years later through the adjunction of Dr G Bose, President of the Indian Psycho-analytic Society, as a professor in the same department. The tradition of teaching of psychology built up by Calcutta University has stressed experimental psychology and abnormal psychology.

The most important department of psychology in the south was established in Mysore in 1924, with Dr M V Gopalaswami (a student of Professor Spearman of London) as the head. This department was somewhat inclined to the mathematical approach and to experiments in animal psychology, but laid the main emphasis on experimental psychology as in the Calcutta tradition.

¹ In 1951 Professor G S Ghurye of the University of Bombay prepared for Unesco a report on the teaching of sociology, social psychology and social anthropology in India. The present report is to be regarded as a supplement to that part of his report which deals with the development of social psychology.

Psychology was included in the Indian Science Congress in 1925. Though the interest of individual psychologists in social problems was reflected earlier in the form of papers read before the Science Congress, social psychology was not accepted as a teaching unit before the early thirties.

After Dr Sengupta joined the Lucknow University as professor of philosophy and psychology about 1928, in collaboration with the sociologist, Dr Radhakamal Mukherjee, he wrote the first Indian textbook of social psychology¹. In the courses of psychology framed by Dr Sengupta, social psychology was included as a unit. Since then Lucknow University has maintained continued interest in the subject, and is continuing to do so under Professor Kali Prasad who joined as the head after the death of Dr Sengupta.

Other centres of psychological studies in the country gradually followed suit and by the early forties social psychology was taught in several universities. By this time it was apparent that the subject had grown popular with students and it was also easy to organize a course of studies in social psychology.

Within the last decade there has been rapid advance in the teaching of social psychology. Interest in research in the subject has become evident. Three factors can be mentioned as having contributed to the advance.

1. World War II brought about an increased awareness regarding the value of applications of the science of psychology to individual and group problems of life.
2. The independence of the country was a stimulus for the advancement of social sciences, including social psychology. People now became conscious more than any time before about the existence of social problems and, in the interest of national growth, the need of solving them by a systematic approach. The government felt that some help might be obtained from social psychology through the scientific studies of causes of social tensions and conflicts. A request was therefore made by the Education Department of the Government of India to Unesco for a consultant to develop teams for research on social tensions in India.
3. Dr Gardiner Murphy came in 1950 as the Unesco consultant, giving further impetus to the increasing consciousness of the value of social psychology. He stimulated considerable interest in thinking in this field, not only through the organization of research studies on social tensions and personal contacts, but also through lectures on and demonstrations of modern techniques in social psychology.

1 R. K. Mukherjee and N. N. Sengupta, *Introduction to Social Psychology*, D. C. Heath Co., 1929.

Although there has been considerable expansion in the study of psychology as an independent subject during the last forty years, it still continues in large measure to be a part of the philosophy course. In the development of social psychology recently, psychological science has undoubtedly played a leading role, but philosophy also has had her share of contribution. Support has also been coming in increasing measure within the last few years from sociology and professional courses like those on social work.

Structure of Teaching of Social Psychology

Teaching of a subject is conditioned in its position and quality largely by the general framework of university organization relating to degrees.

The first degree, known in India as the graduate degree, is Bachelor of Arts or Science, which covers study of two years and represents introductory basic courses usually in a group of subjects of allied nature. The honours degree at the bachelor level is usually also of two years and includes two or three additional papers in the majoring subject and is meant to imply wider and more detailed knowledge. In some of the universities, especially in the South, the honours course is of three years' duration and represents not only extension of knowledge but also a distinctly higher degree of specialization.

The second or postgraduate degree, M A or M Sc, covers two years corresponding to two years honours course. It is a one year course where the honours course is of three years duration. First or second class results in the postgraduate degree are recognized as sufficient for lecturer's works or for special consideration for employment.

Not being an independent specialization, social psychology has to find place within a bigger subject unit. Its natural affiliation is with psychology but in recent years it has also been affiliated with other social science subjects and such professional courses as social work and education.

In the early forties teaching of social psychology in India was indeed confined to a small number of general psychology courses. Today the academic and professional courses of which it forms a part have been very varied.

Out of the 28 universities covered in this report almost 80 per cent of them *i.e.* 22 universities, are giving one or more courses in social psychology. This means that within the last five or six years there has been a considerable increase.

This rise has occurred in three ways

1. Some universities (Patna, Poona, Madras, Bihar) have during this period started independent departments of psychology while some of the older ones (Agra, Aligarh, Gujarat at the M A stage) have opened under philosophy a division of an

entire course in psychology. In such cases social psychology has invariably been considered as deserving inclusion.

2. Some other departments of philosophy which have not set up psychology as a separate teaching course have revised their courses to accommodate social psychology as one of the papers, specially in the optional list.
3. The third way of increase has been through the recognition of social psychology as a teachable unit by other social sciences and social work.

Generally speaking, the new universities that have come into existence within the last decade have shown more openness with regard to social psychology and to some extent to the idea of social sciences in general.

The subjects of which social psychology forms a part in India at present are psychology, philosophy, sociology, political science, anthropology, social work and education. This variety of subjects under which it is taught is an indication of the growing recognition of its value of life.

The total number of courses offered in social psychology by the 22 out of 28 universities, at different stages and under different subjects, total 62. This means that in many universities more than one course is given. In the Nagpur University, where psychology has just been recognized as an independent subject, it is taken up at the level of the intermediate examination which is preliminary to admission to the real university stage. It is taught at the B.A. pass stage in 9 universities, at the B.A. honours stage in 16 universities, at the M.A. stage in 15 universities. Some of the universities run as many as five courses. The numbers of courses and the different disciplines under which social psychology is included in the different universities is indicated below.

Calcutta University (psychology, 3, social work 1, education, 1), Patna University (psychology, 3, sociology, 1, social work, 1) are offering five courses each.

Universities giving four courses are Agra (psychology, 2, philosophy, 1, sociology, 1), Lucknow (psychology, 3, social work, 1), Mysore (psychology, 2, sociology, 1, social philosophy, 1), Banaras (psychology, 2, philosophy, 2), Poona (psychology, 2, sociology, 1, philosophy 1).

Gujarat (psychology, 2, sociology, 1), Bihar (psychology, 2, anthropology, 1), Aligarh (psychology, 3), Delhi (philosophy, 1, social work 1, combined honours 1), Madras (psychology, 2, philosophy, 1), Rajputana (philosophy, 1, politics 1, sociology, 1) are responsible for three courses.

Universities offering two courses are Allahabad (philosophy, 1, political, 1), Bombay (philosophy, 1, sociology, 1), Punjab

(psychology, 2), Karoatak (philosophy, 1, sociology, 1), Baroda (psychology, 2)

Annamalai (philosophy), Andhra (philosophy), Travaocore (philosophy) and Nagpur (psychology) universities are giving only one course at present¹

There is also teaching of social psychology in special institutes outside the universities. The Tata Institute of Social Sciences in Bombay offers a comprehensive programme of introductory basic courses in almost all the social sciences, e.g. sociology, economics, anthropology and social psychology, to supply background knowledge for students taking the professional course of social work. Social psychology figures prominently in this basic course. Reference can also be made to the J K Institute of Social work and Human Relations, which is both a research and a teaching institution, the course of social psychology given has already been included in our mention of the Lucknow University. Social psychology has also found place in the training programme of the Social Education Organizers Training recently started under the new government scheme of social education. Probably some teaching in social psychology and allied fields is given also in the social science section of the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore and the Indian Institute of Technology of Kharagpur.

The study of social psychology has so far developed mainly in connexion with psychology and philosophy. Out of the total 62 courses given, 48 are affiliated to psychology and philosophy. Of these 33 are compulsory.

The number of courses forming part of psychology as an entire subject are 30, out of which 24 are compulsory. Under philosophy 18 courses are offered, out of which eight only are compulsory.

There appears to be some difference between courses given under philosophy and psychology. In most of the universities teaching psychology as an entire course, there are two levels of specialization, whereas in the other group there is mostly one. The maximum number of courses in the philosophy group are given at the honours level. Secondly, the proportion of the compulsory papers in social psychology varies significantly in the two groups, 80 per cent in the psychology group and 44 per cent in the philosophy group.

From this it appears that whereas social psychology is regarded as a basic unit in an entire psychology course (probably, because considered important for understanding human behaviour as a whole) in the philosophy course it seems to be regarded as a curricular variation that may appeal to individual students' interests.

¹ A new type of course in which one has to attain the honours standard in three subjects. These are psychology, politics and economics.

In the survey, 11 universities are found to have sociology as a subject for study, some of them both at the B A and M A stages. Social psychology has been included as a subject on this course in eight of the universities, and in seven of them it is compulsory. Before 1945, social psychology was incorporated in the sociology course only in two universities—Bombay and Mysore. In Banaras, there is provision for an optional group of two papers in the M A Phil, B A Phil (Hons) and B A Psych. (Hons) in all of which social psychology is coupled with sociology.

In several universities students for the B A can take sociology, politics and economics in combination with psychology. The combined honours course, recently introduced in the Delhi University, consists of philosophy, economics and politics, in all of which honours standard has to be attained. The philosophy course of this degree has social psychology as a compulsory subject. As already stated, this is indicative of a new awareness of the need of an integrated social science approach in curricular construction.

Social psychology was included as an optional paper in the Bachelor of Teaching course of the Calcutta University in the late thirties. But it seems that no other education department in the country has considered the value of enriching their programmes by emphasizing social psychology in their curriculum. In fact there are few courses on educational sociology offered by the departments awarding degrees on education.

Social psychology is included as an optional paper in the M A courses in political science at Allahabad and the Rajputana University. In one case it is grouped with anthropology and in the other with sociology. There is no university in India which, like the London School of Economics, recognizes that there may be a relation between social psychology and economics.

It is difficult to say how many students enrol themselves at present for the study of social psychology under the different disciplines. In the intermediate class of Nagpur the number is 124. The B A pass class at Mysore has 100 students. The number at the honours stage is usually between 8 to 14 and at the M A level between 8 to 20. It would not be far from the truth to believe that about 1,500 to 2,000 students enrol themselves for courses containing social psychology as a part.

At the postgraduate specialization level the number is probably 250. Perhaps some 10 per cent of such students are interested in social psychological research.

No university appears so far to have specialized in social psychology and there is perhaps hardly any professor or lecturer who devotes himself solely or even mainly to it. Except two or

three persons who have taken their doctoral thesis in social psychology in foreign countries, the teachers are M A s either in psychology or philosophy. In independent departments of psychology the paper is usually taught by one qualified in psychology.

Whenever social psychology is included in social work or other professional courses the service of a psychologist either on a whole or part time basis is utilized for teaching. In other social science courses, e.g. sociology, political science, the teacher may be a psychologist or a person with an M A degree in the main subject itself.

Except in a few university departments, e.g. Calcutta, Lucknow, Patna, Mysore, where staff strength may be considered fairly satisfactory, most of the teaching centres of psychology have to manage with a very limited personnel. This is a factor which seems to be standing in the way of development of higher standards in the teaching of and research in social psychology, of course, as also in other branches of the subject.

Courses Offered

Of the total number of 62 courses in social psychology, 44 are compulsory, 33 under psychology and philosophy and 11 under other social science or professional subjects.

The first paper in a three paper psychology course is always general psychology. Experimental psychology usually forms another paper, leaving for the third paper either abnormal or social psychology. In 6 cases out of 12, social psychology constitutes the third paper.

At different stages of university education, a definite syllabus for guiding instruction on social psychology is prescribed as on other academic subjects. Some universities, however, do not detail any syllabus on the subject at the M A stage and leave the actual instruction to be determined by the teacher and the recommended textbooks. Those preparing for the doctorate degree have no instruction course to go through but have to work for preparing a thesis under the guidance of some recognized professor.

In 13 out of 22 universities instruction in social psychology is provided at two levels, B A pass or B A honours and M A. In universities having a three-year honours course B A honours represents the higher level as compared to the B A pass is the same university.

The duration of the course in social psychology is usually one year. It is usually also taken up in the second year of the total two-year course period. In the social sciences the subject is taught mostly at the higher level only.

Social psychology is taught through lectures—a necessity because of the small number of teachers in proportion to courses to be taught, and also because at the pass stage the number of

students in a class is large. In a few universities an attempt is being made at the higher level of teaching to supplement the lecture method by students' field work experience or participation in some departmental research projects. The lecture contents at the lower level are usually based on one or two prescribed texts, whereas at the higher level a number of books are used. There does not seem to be any clear cut distinction in regard to recommended books between the lower and the higher level of teaching. Thus *Social Psychology* by Katz and Schank and *Psychology of Society* by Ginsberg are found to be recommended for I A (Intermediate Arts), B A pass, B A honours, and M A.

The most popular textbooks prescribed for B A pass and honours, M A as for other social science courses are Kimbal Young, *Handbook of Social Psychology*, McDougall, *Introduction to Social Psychology*, Krech and Crutchfield, *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology*, Ginsberg, *Psychology of Society*, Freud, *Group Psychology and Analysis of the Ego*. Next in order of frequency of recommendation are Lapiere and Farnsworth, *Social Psychology*, Katz and Schank, *Social Psychology*, Murphy and others, *Experimental Social Psychology*, McDougall, *Group Mind*, Bartlett, *The Study of Society*, Brown *Psychology and Social Order*. For the 'readings' type of textbooks Britt's *Readings in Social Psychology* and Hartley and Newcomb's *Readings in Social Psychology* are mostly recommended for honours and M A students. Murphy's *Experimental Social Psychology* and Krech and Crutchfield's *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology* are mainly prescribed at the M A level.

As to the syllabuses of the different universities, the older type usually has the following items

- 1 Introduction scope, methods, and relation to other social sciences
- 2 Individual basis of social behaviour instincts, emotions, sentiments, suggestions, imitation and sympathy
- 3 Crowd and leadership.
- 4 Products of social process opinion, rumour, folklore, myths and stereotype
- 5 Psychology of social institutions
- 6 Social conflict morale, prejudice, attitude and propaganda.
- 7 Group mind nationality, general will, peace and war

The newer pattern, typified by the Aligarh University syllabus, would contain most of the above mentioned topics and also incorporate additional topics such as

- 1 Interaction of personality and culture
- 2 Methodological problems and experimental studies in social psychology

- 3 Social learning and socialization process of the child.
- 4 Group dynamics and communication process.
- 5 Development of social ideologies
6. Psychology of social control

The dynamic approach in the field of social psychology is new, and found only in a few universities, e.g. the new recently revised syllabus of the Mysore University. Mysore is also one of the few universities that have introduced into the syllabus the topic of recent studies on social tensions.

The difference of standards between the two levels of teaching is reflected in the syllabus. In the universities where the old syllabus continues, the main contents at the lower and higher level are largely the same, the higher level being merely more detailed and comprehensive.

In universities where the syllabus has recently been revised or newly formulated the higher level syllabus contains items which do not find a place at the lower level. Such additional topics are usually (a) group dynamics, (b) scientific methodological problems, (c) experimental studies of perception, memory and thinking under social influence, (d) communication process, (e) socialization of the child.

Course contents of social psychology as part of sociology show wide variation from one university to another. Not much thought has been given to the need of designing an appropriate psychological syllabus for sociology. In some cases no syllabus is drawn up and the teaching is left to the teacher from the psychology side. In several cases the syllabus is of the old type with its foundation on the individual psychology of instincts. In one case only the syllabus appears to be somewhat abreast of modern developments. It may be stated that if social psychology is to be of real help to other social sciences from the side of explanatory principles, there need be more interlocking of the sociological and psychological approach in the syllabus and teaching than at present.

Where the word social work is used in a narrow sense, i.e. labour welfare work, as in Calcutta and Patna, the psychology teaching consists in giving general introduction on industrial psychology and, to a lesser extent, on social psychology. Such a course is of short duration, say six to nine months. Where, on the other hand, social work education aims at a more comprehensive preparation not only in terms of knowledge and skill in the chosen field of professional service but also of general social science outlook, the psychology course covers much of general and social psychology in a composite unit. In this connexion, reference may be made to the syllabus on psychology of the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

Research in Social Psychology

There is a close relation between teaching and research. If teaching is to improve, research has to plough hack new facts and ideas into teaching. This is specially important in the case of underdeveloped countries where teaching in social sciences needs to be related to immediate actual conditions of life.

Till about 1946 the experimental and abnormal branches of psychology found the great majority of the articles written in India on psychological topics. But within the last few years there has been a redistribution of interest. This is indicated from a bibliography of articles published on psychology in India during the period 1939-50, compiled by Dr S V Kale of Poona University.

Number of articles on psychology in India (1939-50), including research and theoretical articles

Division	Eight-year period (1939-48)	Yearly average	Four year period (1947-50)	Yearly average
Experimental	34	4.25	23	5.75
Abnormal	42	5.25	46	11.50
Educational	18	2.25	11	2.75
Social	25	3.12	46	11.50

Thus articles in psychology as a whole were more numerous in the four year period after independence, but the rate of increase has been relatively much higher in the social field than in the other three. In terms of increasing interest, social psychology appears to be now going ahead even of abnormal psychology.

Increasing interest in psychological studies of social problems is indicated from another source. Papers submitted to the psychology section of the Indian Science Congress for the period 1942-55, as given in the *Abstracts of the Congress*, were classified by the author according to the fields of psychological science. The average percentage of papers on social psychology during the first seven years, i.e. from 1942 to 1948, is 6.5, whereas for the second seven years, i.e. from 1949 to 1955 it rises to 16.6. The analysis further indicates that papers in the second half of the period are based on empirical investigation much more than in the first half—these were mostly of a theoretical type. A variety of methods, e.g. special observation, interview, attitude questionnaires and scales, stereotypy lists and social distance scales, have been used in these investigations. A number of papers have reported studies of social tensions and industrial relations.

Dr Gardner Murphy's visit to India in 1950 as Unesco consultant added stimulus to the interest in psychological research on social problems that had been slowly growing up. Under his advice and general guidance six centres of social tension research were established—at Aligarh, Lucknow, Patna, Calcutta,

Ahmedabad, and Bombay. A few other centres, e.g. Madras and Poona, also volunteered to participate in the research projects. The research taken as a whole represents the first attempt at an integral approach to the study of current social problems, bringing together economists, sociologists, anthropologists and psychologists. The studies covered four principal areas of tension. These were insecurity feelings of Muslim minorities, frustrated feelings of refugees, caste prejudices and tensions, and social tension within industry.

An important effect of the social tension studies under the Government of India and Unesco has been the enthusiasm for research apparent during the last three years among postgraduate students of social sciences, specially of social psychology. At several universities visited by Dr Murphy, students as well as staff members became 'infected' with zeal for social research. The author remembers how at the Institute of Psychological Research and Service, Patna, where a research thesis is part of the requirement for the M.A. degree of applied psychology under the rules of the university, the number of research theses from the area of social psychology suddenly increased from almost nothing to 50 per cent in 1951 and 1952.¹

A peak point of interest in research on social psychology appears to have followed the visit of Dr Murphy. The analysis of abstracts of papers submitted to the psychology section of the Indian Science Congress, to which reference has already been made, bears this out. The average percentages of papers relating to social problems for seven consecutive two year units of the total 14 year period are as follows: 1942-43, 6, 1944-45, 7, 1946-47, 6, 1948-49, 8, 1950-51, 13, 1952-53, 30, 1954-55, 16.

The Indian university teachers' workload is heavy. Some have to take as many as 12 to 18 classes a week. Moreover, one has to teach usually a variety of subjects and it is difficult for one to specialize. In the background of these handicaps the present interest in research in social psychology appears to be really striking. According to the reports obtained, research for the doctorate degree is now being conducted in some universities, e.g. Mysore, Aligarh and Calcutta. Increasingly large number of students are also taking up thesis work in the field as part of their work for the M.A. degree.

Outside the university departments research in social psychology is conducted by certain research institutions. Some of these are interested in the industrial field and some in human development and human relations.

The Ahmedabad Textile Industrial Research Association, Ahmedabad, has five sections for research of which psychology is one. Besides being engaged in research on such problems as

¹ The author was Director of the Institute at Patna till October 1953.

workload, fatigue and accidents, the psychology section is also working on social relations problems within industry. Recently it has undertaken studies of labour-management relations and morale within the textile industry of Ahmedabad.

The J K Institute of Social Work and Human Relations of Lucknow is interested in social ecology, rural and urban sociology, social psychology and criminology. Studies already undertaken are related to juvenile delinquency, vagrancy, family planning, and family disintegration among industrial workers.

The B M Institute of Child Development, Ahmedabad, has research and service programmes. These are based on a combined approach, involving sociological and psychological methods. On the clinical side the institute is engaged in the study of interaction of culture and personality in its relation to behaviour problems. On the side of social psychology it is carrying on studies in group-dynamics, communication processes, and child-rearing practices.

The Indian Institute of Science, of Bangalore, and the Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur, Bengal, also conduct research studies in social psychology. The former has been interested in measurement of social distances and security index, the latter in studying some factors of labour attitude.

Two handicaps affecting the progress of social psychological research in India, namely (a) workload of the teachers and (b) lack of funds,¹ have already been referred to. Another is lack of communication among research workers. At present one research worker seldom knows what another is doing, though both of them may be working in the same field. Machinery needs to be set up for avoiding unnecessary duplication resulting from this lack of knowledge and for leading to a better co-ordination of research plans and efforts.

Conclusions : Problems

Three problems affect the further development of social psychology in India.

The first is the problem of status. Within the last twenty years there has been considerable expansion in the teaching of social psychology and, within the bounds of psychological and philosophical studies the subject has gained much in position and popularity. Though in recent years it has acquired some place in the teaching of sociology, its position in the social sciences is still uncertain. In the words of Professor T H Marshall, Chairman of the Round-Table Conference on the Teaching of Social Sciences in South Asia, 1954 'It is admitted that social

¹ The Education Department of the Government of India sanctioned Rs 100,000 for grants for socio psychological research in 1952-53.

psychology belongs to the social sciences but in extremely few places (i.e., in South Asia) is its membership an accomplished fact.'

Employment prospects of students specializing in social psychology constitute the second problem. Specialized knowledge has at present little employment value. As the teachers of the subject themselves say, the only job that one may expect to look for with the qualification of such knowledge is that of a lecturer. (Even for that, it does not seem to be necessary, among the teachers are several who did not need to go through a course in the subject.) There is a growing feeling, however, especially in industry and administration that psychological science can make some contribution towards the solution of practical problems of social and industrial life. Industry in particular seems to be recognizing the value of the socio-psychological approach for understanding and tackling day to day problems in human relations—as is evident from the recent introduction of attitude and morale studies at the labour level, appointment of social and industrial psychologists as advisers, research or welfare workers, and use of psychological principles of group development for supervisory training. It may be hoped, therefore, that opportunities for using specialized knowledge and skill in social psychology in relation to practical programmes will open up in future in a larger measure.

Intimately connected with the questions of status and of employment is the problem of need for improved teaching. In the rapid expansion of the last decade, the emphasis has inevitably been more on quantity than quality. Though very recently an attempt has been made in a few universities to bring about improvement through reorganization of syllabus present teaching of the subject is almost wholly academic. It consists mainly in explanation of concepts and illustrations thereof in terms of certain typical social behaviour of man, it is not related to facts and factors of the social life of the country—to its social structure, to its changing social patterns and the new problems arising therefrom and does not sufficiently prepare the student to analyse and understand actual social situations and phenomena nor furnish him with skill of practical approach to concrete social problems.

How the teaching can be improved to make the subject a more useful and valued member of the social sciences group, and enable it to fulfil its new obligations in the context of changing conditions and demands, is a matter which psychologists and social scientists will have to consider urgently. In the meantime, what seems to be most needed are (a) greater emphasis on training in scientific methodology and skill in social observation, social experiment and social analysis and (b) reorganization of the syllabus on the basis of an integration of the sociological and the psychological approaches.

CHAPTER VIII

LEGAL EDUCATION

C. H. Alexandrowicz

Introduction

Legal education, the structure of the legal profession and the organization of the judicial system in India follow in varying degrees the English pattern. There are, however, some important differences. While legal education in England is divided into two separate and independent branches, university education and professional education, and while university degrees in law are irrelevant for admission to the legal profession, the position in India is different. The university degree is essential for the legal practitioner or judge. Moreover, while the legal profession in England consists of two branches, barristers and solicitors, this division is not generally followed in India. Finally, the federal structure of India determines the organization of the judiciary, and this constitutes another important deviation from the English system.

The Legal Profession

The judicial system of India consists of a Supreme Court for the whole of India, of High Courts, and a hierarchy of different grades of Courts subordinate to the High Court in each state.

The legal profession as it exists today is the natural outcome of the judicial system and has different grades of legal practitioners with varying qualifications practising in these Courts. It may be broadly divided into two classes, *viz.* advocates and pleaders. The former, the more important, comprises those who are enrolled in the Supreme Court or in a High Court and are entitled to practise in such a Court. The latter includes those only entitled to appear in courts subordinate to a High Court.

The qualifications required from advocates for enrolment in a High Court are prescribed by the Bar Council of the particular state in consultation with the High Court, and vary from one state to another. However, all High Courts now insist on a law degree of an Indian university as the minimum qualification for enrolment. Some additional qualifications such as practice in the District (subordinate) Courts for a certain number of years, or reading in chambers of a practising advocate for a certain period, are also prescribed. The advocates of one High Court may also practise in any other High Court subject to the rules of that Court, and are entitled to practise in all subordinate Courts throughout the Republic of India.

Under the rules made by the Supreme Court of India, a person who holds a degree in law obtained from an Indian

university, and has been enrolled as an advocate in a High Court for not less than seven years, is eligible for enrolment as a Supreme Court advocate. Discretionary power is given to the Court to permit enrolment as an advocate of any other person who, in its opinion, is sufficiently qualified, or to permit such person to appear as advocate in a particular case.

The other class of legal practitioners, called pleaders, are either law graduates who do not possess the additional qualifications required for enrolment as advocates, or non graduates who were permitted to practise in inferior Courts owing to the paucity of law graduates in the past. Such non graduates had to pass a pleadership examination conducted by the appropriate High Court. Recruitment of non graduate pleaders has now been discontinued in all states of the country. Pleaders cannot appear before a High Court unless they get enrolled as advocates after practice during a prescribed number of years in subordinate Courts.

Apart from pleaders, there was another class of practitioners called mukhtars. They were generally persons who after passing the entrance examination (corresponding to the matriculation examination) had passed the mukhtarship examination held by the High Court. They could act and plead only in the Criminal Courts in the *mofussil* and could not appear in any subordinate Civil Court or in the High Court. The recruitment of mukhtars has been discontinued in all states except West Bengal, Assam and Orissa.

In 1952 there were 26,465 advocates, 38,457 pleaders and 6,330 mukhtars practising in different Courts in India.

In order to understand the role of the advocate in India, it has to be kept in mind that the 'dual system' of counsel and solicitor, which is a special feature of the British legal system, does not exist in India except to a very limited extent in the High Courts at Calcutta and Bombay. The advocate in India can not only plead but act as well. The dual system was brought to India by English barristers and solicitors and introduced in the former Supreme Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, which were established by Royal Charter in the days of the East India Company and exercised jurisdiction within the limits of these three towns. After the Crown took over the administration from the East India Company, High Courts were created in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in place of the former Supreme Courts. These three High Courts exercised original jurisdiction within the limits of the presidency towns. Outside the presidency towns they exercised appellate jurisdiction. Thus the dual system was firmly established on the original side of these three High Courts, but did not find its way either into their appellate side or into any of the High Courts which were subsequently established and invested only with appellate jurisdiction. It was given up in Madras in

1886 but has been maintained on the original side of the Calcutta and Bombay High Courts where every advocate must appear and plead on the instruction of attorneys who alone can act

The old Supreme Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras were, at their inception, an exclusive preserve for members of the British legal profession who alone could then be enrolled as advocates or attorneys. Although Indian lawyers began to go to England to qualify for the Bar or as solicitors, English barristers and solicitors predominated on the original side for a considerable time. Thus in 1871 there were 38 solicitors in Bombay of whom 10 were Indians and the rest English, and 24 advocates of whom 7 were Indians. Gradually legal practice on the original side passed into Indian hands, in 1911 out of 150 solicitors practising in Bombay 130 were Indians and of 250 advocates only 16 were English barristers. In 1952 there were more than 600 attorneys in Calcutta and about 450 in Bombay, including a negligible number of English solicitors only.

Under the rules of the Bombay High Court, the qualifications for enrolment of attorneys are (a) the possession of a law degree of a recognized university, (b) three years of service as articled clerk with an attorney of the Bombay High Court, and (c) the passing of the articled clerks' examination which is held under the auspices of the High Court. Non graduates who, in the opinion of the Chief Justice and the judges, appear to have been educated to the required standard, may by special order be permitted to enter articles for a period of not less than four years. An attorney can practise in all the Courts of the State. But though enrolled as an advocate, he cannot practise as an advocate on the original side, he can only instruct advocates on the original side and cannot plead except in insolvency and chamber matters. He cannot address the Court on the appellate side unless he is enrolled as an advocate also. In Calcutta attorneys have to serve as articled clerks for a period of five years and pass three attorneyship examinations. As articled clerks they get thorough practical training which will equip them for the profession. The attorneyship examinations are of a high standard, in Calcutta a candidate has to secure at least 50 per cent of the marks in each subject and 62.5 per cent in the aggregate. Under the Calcutta High Court rules, an attorney of three years' standing can, on his application, be enrolled as an advocate without having to pass any further examination. In Bombay an attorney can likewise become an advocate of the High Court.

An attempt was made to introduce the dual system as an experimental measure in the Supreme Court of India but was abandoned in 1954. Under the new rules, the Supreme Court advocates are classified into senior advocates and advocates. As already stated above, a law graduate of an Indian university (or a member of the English Bar) who is an advocate of at least seven years' standing in a High Court is eligible for enrolment as a

Supreme Court advocate An advocate of the Supreme Court, or an advocate with not less than 10 years' standing in a High Court and qualified to be enrolled as Supreme Court advocate, may on application be admitted to the roll of senior advocates if the full Court is of the opinion that he deserves the distinction by virtue of his ability, status and reputation at the bar, subject to his giving an undertaking that he shall not draw pleadings, affidavits, advice on evidence or do any drafting work of a similar kind. Any advocate having an office in Delhi and not being a senior advocate may register as an advocate on record and be entitled to act as well as plead for any part in proceedings. Only an advocate on record shall be entitled to file an appearance or act for a party in the Court, and no advocate other than an advocate on record shall appear and plead in any matter unless he is instructed by an advocate on record.

Members of the English Bar, *i.e.* barristers of England, Northern Ireland and members of the Faculty of Advocates in Scotland, are also eligible for enrolment as advocates of the High Courts or Supreme Court, provided they have the additional qualifications prescribed by the rules. However, the right of a barrister-at law to appear in an Indian Court arises from his enrolment as an advocate and not otherwise. The peculiar position of a barrister-at law in England disappears here on his enrolment as an advocate, his rights, duties and disabilities are the same as those of any other non barrister advocate. He can see his client, settle his fees and act for him, with or without intervention of a solicitor, he can even sue his client for recovery of fees due.

Legal Education at Universities

It follows from the above that the basic qualification for entering the legal profession is now a law degree of an Indian university. The universities, being autonomous bodies, have prescribed different periods of study and syllabuses for a law degree. The principal law degree conferred by the universities is the degree of bachelor of law (referred to as LL B. or B L). A Bachelor of Law may be admitted to the master's degree in law (LL M. or M L) usually on the basis of a written examination, and thereafter to a doctorate (LL D) on the basis of research and of an original thesis.

Although the curriculum for the bachelor's degree in law varies from university to university, some important common features may be noted. First, all the universities except those in the Bombay and Andhra states, insist on the possession of a bachelor's degree in arts, science or commerce for admission to the law course. This means that only a student who has received general university education for a period of four years after matriculation can embark on the study of law. Secondly, except in the Calcutta University, the candidate must study for two years in a law college or other recognized institution. The degree examination is divided into two parts—the first or preliminary

examination and the second or final examination for the bachelor's degree—each being held at the end of the academ'c year of study. A candidate must pass the first part before he can take the second. Thirdly, the general policy is to prescribe the so-called general or fundamental subjects for study in the first year leaving the bulk of the laws of the country with which the practitioner has to deal for study in the second year. Thus Roman law, jurisprudence and constitutional law are generally prescribed for the first year while Hindu law, Mohammedan law and the law of property are studied in the second year. Fourthly, the tendency is to make the study of law full-time, though some colleges hold part-time classes in the early morning and in the evening to enable persons who are already in some employment, to study law.

In the Bombay, Poona, Gujarat and Andhra universities, a student can start the study of law immediately after passing the intermediate examination, that is, after two years of general university education instead of the four years' general education insisted on by the other universities. For such a student a law course extending over a period of three years is prescribed, viz a law preliminary course of one year in general subjects followed by regular instruction for two years in legal subjects. The law preliminary examination comprises two papers in English based on prescribed textbooks, and one paper each in the history of social institutions, political theory, outlines of European history or outlines of the social, economic and constitutional history of India.

In the Calcutta University where only graduates are admitted to the law course, the duration of the course is nevertheless three years. To qualify for the LL. B. degree a candidate must pass three examinations in legal subjects, viz the preliminary, the intermediate and the final examinations, the number of subjects in which the candidate is examined at the end of each year of study is therefore proportionally reduced.

The Madras, Andhra and Travancore universities confine legal education to the so called substantive law as distinct from the procedural law with which only those who actually enter the legal profession are concerned. In these states, a law graduate of the university who wishes to enter the profession has to go through what is called an 'apprentice course' of one year's duration for the study of practice and procedure. In order to qualify for enrolment as an advocate, the apprentice must pass an examination in procedural law held by the Bar Council. The Bar Council arranges for a series of lectures on the Procedure Codes and on special Acts from the fields of Insolvency and Company Law and the Law of Limitations. Apprentices must attend a certain percentage of these lectures. During the period of apprenticeship the pupil reads also in chambers under the supervision of a practising advocate.

The exclusion of procedural law from the degree curriculum rests on the view that not all those who study law at the universities intend to join the legal profession. The following extract from the report of the University Education Commission is relevant 'In the range of subjects studied in our universities there are some like mathematics and philosophy which are studied for their value as cultural disciplines, others like medicine and engineering have a definite vocational end in view. Law stands midway between these two groups. There are some who take law as part of a liberal education, others because they wish to enter the legal profession after graduation. Many who would enter public services, international organizations or business concerns would like to read law at the universities.'

The Delhi and East Punjab universities achieve the same result in a different way. They provide for a special additional course of one year's instruction after the LL.B. second examination for those who wish to practise under the jurisdiction of the respective High Court, the subjects taught are local land laws and customary law, laws relating to Court fees, insolvency, arbitration and the like. An examination called the Certificate of Proficiency Examination in Delhi and the LL.B. final examination in Punjab, is held by the university at the end of one year's study.

Instruction in legal subjects is provided in the professional law colleges. Facilities for legal education are also provided by the departments of law at some universities (e.g. Delhi) and in some arts and science colleges which have law faculties attached. The academic year normally lasts from July to March and is divided into two or three terms. There are about 160 working days in a year. Instruction takes mainly the form of classroom lectures of 15 to 20 hours a week and students must attend at least 75 per cent of the lectures. The curriculum for the bachelor's degree normally consists of jurisprudence, Roman law, law of contract, criminal law, constitutional law and the law of torts during the first year, Hindu law, Mohammedan law, law of evidence, law of property, international law and the civil procedure code are taught during the second year. The university prescribes textbooks for the study of each subject, some universities also prescribe a list of leading cases which are to be studied as expositions of important legal principles contained in judgments. At the end of each academic year a university examination consisting of six to seven papers is held. The qualifying marks for a pass are 30 to 40 per cent in each paper and 40 to 50 per cent in the aggregate. Successful candidates are assigned classes or divisions with reference to the aggregate marks scored. In 1932 there were about 13,000 students studying in the different law schools in India.

Apart from the ordinary bachelor's degree, the Delhi University offers the degree of bachelor of civil law (B.C.L.) after a one-year course of study. Only those who have passed the honours or master's degree examination in arts, science or

commerce, can join this course. An examination is held at the end of each year of the course. In the Banaras University the LL B honours degree is conferred on those who pass the regular LL B degree final examination with two additional subjects selected from historical jurisprudence, Hindu jurisprudence and private international law, the candidate must secure not less than 50 per cent of the marks in the two additional papers and 60 per cent in the aggregate of all papers including the regular LL B.

As many as 19 universities offer a master's degree (LL M or M L). To be admitted to this examination a candidate must be a bachelor of laws, of two years' standing generally. Many universities prescribe a course of regular instruction in an affiliated law college or in the university law faculty for a period which varies from one year in Agra and Delhi to three years in Bombay. Some universities require only one or two years' study under the supervision of a recognized teacher of law or other person approved for the purpose by the university law faculty. The master's degree is generally conferred on the basis of a written examination, in Bombay, Gujarat and Poona by written examination or by thesis, and in Travancore, Osmania, Calcutta, Patna and Andhra by a combination of written examination and thesis. A few universities provide in addition for a viva voce examination. The scheme of the written examination follows one of two patterns. The first as in Calcutta, consists of three to four compulsory subjects—usually jurisprudence, constitutional law, Roman law, Hindu or Mohammedan law—and two or three optional subjects. The second pattern, as in Madras, consists of one branch (or group of subjects) to be selected by the candidate from six or seven approved branches, e.g. jurisprudence and Roman law, constitutional and international law, law of crime and tort, contracts and mercantile law, Hindu, Mohammedan and personal laws, law of property. There are usually six papers and the qualifying marks are 40 per cent in each paper and 50 per cent in the aggregate. The standard set being very high, it not infrequently happens that no candidate is declared successful. A list of textbooks recommended by the University of Calcutta for Hindu and Mohammedan law (one of the four compulsory subjects prescribed for the examination) is reproduced below.

Hindu law Manu, *Institutes* Chapters 1, 3 and 7, 9, Yajnavalkya, *Institutes* Book II on Vyavahara, Vijnaneswara, *Mitakshara*, Devananda Bhatta, *Smṛiti Chandrika*, Vachaspathi Misra, *Vivada Chintamani*, Nilakantha, *Vyavahara Mayukha*, Mitra Misra, *Viranitrodaya*, Jimutavahana, *Dayabhaga*, Raghunandana, *Dayatattwa*, Nanda Pandita, *Dattaka Mimamsa*, Kuvera, *Dattaka Chandrika*, Georedoss Banerjee, *Marriage and Stridhan* (Tagore Lectures), Rajkumar Sarvadikari, *Inheritance* (Tagore Lectures), Golapchandra Sarkar, *Adaptian* (Tagore Lectures), P. N. Sen, *Principles of Hindu Jurisprudence*, Mayne, *Hindu Law and Usage*, Jogendrachandra Ghose, *Hindu Law*.

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Mohammedan law Serajuddin, *Al Sirajiyu*, Bailie, *Digest of Mohammedan Law—Sunni and Shia*, Ameer Ali, *Mohammedan Law*, Vols I and II, Wilson, *Digest of Anglo-Mohammedan Law*, Abdur Rahim, *Principles of Mohammedan Jurisprudence*, M Yusuf, *Mohammedan Law*

Nine universities confer the degree of doctor of laws (LL D or D L) The candidate must have obtained a master's degree in law at least one year previously, and submit a thesis written by him in some branch of law or the history or philosophy of law In Nagpur, Calcutta and Banaras universities the candidate may also have to take an oral and/or written examination if considered necessary, in Patna there is a compulsory written examination after the thesis

The lack of uniformity in the existing system of legal education became the subject matter of criticism It is now generally agreed that it is necessary to have a period of (a) pre legal general education (b) academic legal education, and (c) practical or professional education As regards (a) both the University Education Commission (1948) and the All India Bar Committee (1951) have recommended that a university degree in arts or science should be a pre requisite for admission to the law course As regards (b) and (c), the University Education Commission has recommended a three year course of study for the degree of bachelor of laws, the last year being devoted to practical studies such as reading in chambers and acquiring the art of advocacy and familiarity with court room procedures The All India Bar Committee has recommended a two year course in the university for a law degree followed by a further apprentice course of study for one year in practical subjects The State Bar Council would make the necessary arrangements for instruction for apprentices and for holding an examination in those subjects

The University Education Commission did not think that a set curriculum of studies could be introduced throughout India for the law degree course It has, however, recommended that the subjects could be made more uniform than at present, while reflecting the conditions arising from differences in special Acts, customs and other factors varying from State to State in the Republic of India In fact, differences exist not only in the law courses they exist in the organization of the legal profession itself Just as each university has its own system of legal education, each state has its own Bar and pattern of legal profession There is a strong movement in the profession for the formation of a unified All India Bar If a central controlling authority on the lines of the Council of Legal Education in England were established legal education could be rationalized not only by achieving a measure of uniformity but also by adapting it to the present day needs of the profession Except for the limited representation of the Bar on the university law faculties, the legal profession has at present no effective control over the teaching of law

This urgent need to adapt the scheme of legal education to present-day requirements has been emphasized by the University Education Commission. As stated in the Commission's report, the study of law has produced eminent practitioners and excellent judges, as also men and leaders devoted to public service. But there are no internationally known expounders of jurisprudence and legal studies, law has not become a field of profound scholarship and research. With the attainment of independence and the consequent responsibility of developing constitutional government, it becomes imperative to develop high grade colleges of law, manned with scholars and capable of educating a more independent type of lawyer. The prominence of philosophical studies in India would indicate that it is possible to produce this type of lawyer and scholar.

The formation of an All-India body of teachers of law on the pattern of the Society of Public Teachers of Law as founded in the U.K. or the Association of University Professors in U.S.A., would no doubt greatly help in the improvement of the educational system.

International and Constitutional Law

Public international law is included, as compulsory, in the curriculum of the bachelor's degree in 16 universities, in five universities it is optional, being an alternative subject to either Roman law or private international law.

Private international law is a compulsory subject only in the universities in the state of Bombay. In the six other universities where it is taught, the student may choose it in lieu of either public international law or equity or land tenure.

Constitutional law is compulsory in all universities except Patna where it is an optional subject.

Public international and constitutional law are two subjects of exceptional importance. They promote knowledge of public law which was for a long time neglected in Indian universities.

The growing interest in international law is connected with the urgent need for studying the legal position of independent India in the Family of Nations. The study of constitutional law leads to comparative legal studies in India, particularly of English, Canadian, Australian and American constitutional law. All these systems of law are essential for understanding the Indian Constitution and cannot be ignored by Indian lawyers. Thus an expansion of legal studies takes place which calls for the examination of other subjects, less important in India. No doubt the study of Roman law which was introduced in India under the influence of the English system of legal education, will have to give way to international and comparative constitutional law.

Methods of Teaching

One of the great problems of legal studies in India is the paucity of teaching staff and the unduly large number of students, which

is characteristic of most of the law colleges. Consequently the law student receives not enough individual attention through tutorial classes and seminars which would be possible only if the teacher were in charge of a small group of 15 to 20 students and if a more direct contact between him and the student could be established. In the law colleges the teacher pupil ratio varies from 1:35 to 1:80 and more, and it is not at all unusual to find as many as 150 students in a classroom.

The policy of employing part-time lecturers recruited from the legal profession calls for revision. Its origin can be traced to the early days of the judicial system when the law college was regarded an adjunct to the High Court, and distinguished members of the Bar considered it a duty and privilege to deliver lectures to a limited number of students. The law course has now become full time in most places, the number of students has greatly increased and the curriculum has expanded. Under these changed conditions the only persons who are now attracted by part time lecturerships are the junior members of the bar who undertake teaching in order to supplement their professional income. Needless to say, many of them lack not only higher qualifications required for training men in the profession but also any real abiding interest in teaching. Even if the engagement of practitioners on a part time basis were justified on the ground that they are more competent than academic lawyers to teach in the fields of practical application of law and procedure, all teaching in the fundamental subjects should be entrusted to full time lecturers with high academic qualifications only.

Research

One great drawback in India is the absence of research scholars in various fields of law, able to analyse systematically the legal material available and to express critical views. No doubt the Supreme Court and High Court judges have produced a considerable volume of case law which shows greater erudition, but neither they nor legal practitioners have the time or the facilities for expounding the law in an academic manner. Professors of law apart from their teaching duties should engage in systematic research in Indian law in all its new aspects, particularly with reference to the exposition of the Indian Constitution which is the fundamental law of the country. This would no doubt lead to the formation of a body of academic lawyers who could influence legal opinion and be of assistance to the legal practitioner as well as to the civil servant. The universities of Madras and Delhi have given a lead in this field, the first by creating a special research department of constitutional and international law, the latter by endowing its faculty of law with the necessary research facilities.

**TEACHING OF THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES IN INDIA
(1956-1967)**

PART—II

by

PANDIT GOPESH KUMAR OJHA
M.A., LL.B

SECTION I : GENERAL

CHAPTER IX

PART II : ITS SCOPE AND PURPOSE

The teaching of the social sciences in India comprising the teaching of economics, political science, international relations, sociology, social anthropology, social psychology and law was published by the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation, in 1956. The study of teaching of social sciences in India was a part of an extensive programme to cover a number of countries and quite naturally this country occupying a pre eminent position in Asia, was included in the survey.

Apart from other advantages which a comparative study of teaching of social sciences in Asian, European, African countries and U S A may lead to, one of the objectives was to show in which institutional frame work the professor or student from abroad may expect new methods and techniques to be tried out under rapidly changing conditions.

Eleven years have elapsed since this book was published, and the state of teaching of social sciences in our universities and colleges has also not remained static. More universities and more and more colleges have come into being. And we are going ahead, both as regards increasing number of pupils receiving education and the enlarging of the scope of study. More subjects are being drawn within its orbit, and with the stimulus provided to higher education the study of social sciences is also having its due quota.

What are Social Sciences

One basic question must however be settled before we proceed further, for that is germane to the scope of the present report. And that is. What are social sciences and which of these—whether as an independent discipline or as an integral part of another discipline of the same group—must be included in the present survey.

In current studies, there has been a division of disciplines into humanities, linguistics, physical sciences, natural sciences, social sciences, administrative sciences, and so on. If we widen the scope of social sciences to all branches of study which affect man as a social being, or the society, in his mental, moral and physical efforts and inclinations to live, let live, survive, conserve, expand, project his efforts in mind and matters to organize, produce and sustain his earnings and live in security and follow certain codes of conduct legal or social and his practice as an individual affecting the family, group, society or State or in relation to other individuals, families societies or States, the scope-

of social sciences would broaden very considerably and its frontiers would extend and even encroach upon the grounds of other sciences. Nor would it be unnatural or surprising. The propensities and the proclivities of man are incapable of hide bound classification. They are a natural projection of the self and the study of man and his activities and all that touches him or affects his outlook both as a subjective approach and in objective receptivity, are the subject of study not only as an academic interest and intellectual pleasure but to observe and assimilate and classify the data to help arrive at certain conclusions, which may serve as the corner stone of plans for betterment. The past acts as guideline for the future. The study of various facts is like the unbroken ecliptic without any spokes put in by nature, but just as for the sake of convenience the astronomers have put in twelve invisible spokes, so have the authors as a measure of practical convenience, split the study into certain distinct disciplines. But this again is a continuing process. New disciplines are being added, while in case of others with two or more branches, each branch having developed sufficiently in importance and magnitude, has acquired the character and status of a separate and independent discipline.

Disciplines under Social Sciences included in part II

As stated earlier, the first part of this book has only eight chapters and deals with seven disciplines, while separate chapters there have been devoted to economics, political science, international relations, legal education, social anthropology and social psychology, in chapter V sociology, social psychology and social anthropology have been treated together.

The author of part II contacted the United Nation's Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization for assistance in collecting material and information for this part but Mr A. Bertrand Director, Department of Social Sciences, by his letter dated 15th Feb. 1967 informed him as follows :

"I am afraid there is little this organization can do to help you in your project to write a new book about the teaching of social sciences in India. UNESCO has at present no projects or plans in this connection and any information on the subject can only be obtained in India. In fact when the survey on the teaching of social sciences in India was prepared by UNESCO in 1956, it was entrusted to a group of scholars in that country. You may be interested however by some of the books published in the Unesco collection *The University Teaching of Social Sciences* in which a comparative study is made on the teaching of major social science disciplines in various countries." The above guidelines helped me to go through the various new publications of the Unesco referred to above. The UNESCO has published surveys on industrial sociology, statistics, criminology and business management. The UNESCO may in future bring out more publications in the series. But in order to establish the scope and

jurisdiction of social sciences we have to abide by some standard classification and we are on this aspect, giving the basis enunciated, in the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences edited by R. A. Saligman and Alvio Johson. They state "the social sciences may thus be defined as those mental or cultural sciences, which deal with the activities of the individual, as a member of a group since the common wants of mankind are exceedingly diversified the group activities designed to satisfy these wants are correspondingly manifold. In the measure these group activities have been subjected to study the social sciences have multiplied. From the very beginning the field of science has been divided and classified into two, viz. study and scientific investigation pertaining to (i) physical nature, (ii) phenomena of mind. The mental or cultural sciences may again be classified—those which deal with man as a separate individual conceived of as disassociated from his fellow beings and others which deal with man, as a member of a group. It is the study of latter category, man as a member of a group which constitutes social sciences."

The World University Encyclopaedia defines social sciences as the sciences which deal with the various aspects of human behaviour. As the needs and activities of man are manifold, these group activities have been studied and classified as different disciplines of social sciences. According to Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences, these may be said to fall into three classes

- (a) the purely social sciences,
- (b) the semi-social sciences,
- (c) the sciences with social implications

According to the editors of this encyclopaedia politics, economics, history and jurisprudence are the four older disciplines falling in group (a). Then they put anthropology, psychology, sociology and social work as newer social sciences as also falling in group (a). They correlate sociology and social work as the "union of enquiry and action". They say, "in the formative period in the history of sociology a wide range of social activities were for convenience subsumed under its rubrics, although not essentially related to its theories. Such, for instance, were the history and techniques of charities and corrections and the whole institutional structures built up to deal with them. What characterizes this entire field is the association of scientific enquiry with social action".

The division of these eight disciplines, politics, economics, history, jurisprudence, anthropology, psychology, sociology and social work, into two categories—older and newer—is only on the basis of their historical development as independent disciplines—the first four having assumed a full fledged state early in point of time, the latter having acquired this state in the last few centuries. But all these eight disciplines, they group under purely social sciences. It is important to note that of the eight

disciplines included in social sciences, seven—economics, political science, legal education, anthropology, penology, sociology, and social work—have been included in the present survey but history was not included in the previous report and on that basis teaching of history should not have been included in this part also. But we have added new disciplines in the present report on two grounds. Those which received scant attention in the previous report, such as commerce or geography, but which on account of their importance and the large number of students receiving instructions in them deserved more detailed consideration have received due recognition in this part. Instead of stating that we have included new disciplines of this category, it would be more correct to say that we have upgraded them by devoting separate chapters to them and dealing with them in detail, on account of their being full-fledged units and as such deserving an independent status in their own right and not as subsidiary units of other disciplines. The second ground, on which we have included—or rather treated as independent units—certain disciplines, has been the UNESCO's including them in their surveys as independent disciplines—In this category come industrial sociology, business Management, etc.

As stated above, history despite having been a full fledged discipline, and having been taught as such in Indian universities was not included in the present report in 1956, when the UNESCO brought out part I of this volume, and despite this part II being only a storey added to the existing structure and our choice being limited to the older framework, we have included history in the present report.

The authors of the encyclopaedia state that "History has never actually been 'past politics' alone, but until comparatively recent times it has served the social sciences mainly through the material it afforded for the interpretation of politics. In the last century it has not only become far more rigorous in its scientific method but it has extended its scope to the inclusion of the manifold phenomena of human life, individual and mass phenomena as well as those of formal political organization. Thus history has become an indispensable source of material for the interpretation of social processes."

Now we shall pass on to the group classified as semi-social sciences.

The second group (b) that of semi-social sciences has also been divided into two categories. In group first come all those which, however diverse their present day importance, are social in origin and still retain in part a social content. In group second are others which although independent in origin have acquired in part a social content. Starting in different ways, both groups have reached an identical position. The editors put ethics and education in the first category of semi social sciences, and philosophy and psychology in the second category.

For those, who are interested in the subject in detail, it would be best to refer to the twelve volumes of the encyclopaedia, but others who would be satisfied with a brief reasoning why ethics, education, philosophy and psychology should be included in social sciences, we would like to give brief excerpts

Ethics

"In the first group, the most important is ethics, in a certain sense the most sublime of all sciences for the right ordering of the moral life is the ultimate aim of human behaviour. Ethical conduct is primarily a question of the individual, for conscience—the great regulator of conduct—is a personal matter. However, individual morality itself has been increasingly recognized as the resultant of social forces. Without the group there would have been no conception of the right and wrong.

Education

"Finally education, in the wider sense has, nowadays come to be individual even though the technique of group education must naturally differ. Education is thus partly social in content, partly social in aim, partly social in method and may therefore be deemed a semi social science.

Philosophy

"Philosophy in a certain sense the fore runner of science was long considered as something entirely independent. When we deal with final interpretation of life, of thought, and of conduct which we call philosophy, we seem to be treading on ground unbroken by science. But in proportion as parts of the unknown are converted into the known, new sciences are detached from the all embracing philosophy and pursue a life of their own. It was in this way that chemistry and physics arose out of the mediaeval natural philosophy and that politics and economics were separated from philosophy."

In contrast to (a) the purely social sciences and (b) the semi-social sciences, there is the third category of sciences with social implications. In this category come biology, geography, medicine, linguistics and art. The learned editors have given very cogent reasoning to prove how eugenics (in biology) medicine (diagnosis and treatment of disease which is a part of social forces), linguistics in its scientific social aspects and art (artistic creation being dominated by values which are at best in part social in origin) are correlated to social behaviour of man and as such should be included in social sciences. We shall not go into the details but have rather quoted *extenso* to show how some standard classifications have been made. We have quoted the authority of the encyclopaedia only in respect of those disciplines (ethics, education, philosophy) which should have been included in social sciences, but we have not included them in our survey here as that would have made this report too voluminous. To revert to the present report, in dealing with the

various disciplines, we have neither followed the order set out in part I nor that of purely social sciences, semi social sciences and the sciences with social implications. We have been much impressed by 'A New Survey of Social Sciences' edited by Mr Baidynath Varma, comprising learned contributions by William O Douglas *Law*, Harold D Lasswell *Political Science*, Saul K Padovar *International Relations*, Gardner Murphy *Psychology*, Otto Klinburg *Social Psychology*, Morris E Opler *Cultural Anthropology*, Hans L Zetterberg *Sociology*, Hans Neisser, *Economics*, Paul Neurath *Statistics*, and thereafter methodological and theoretical problems have been dealt with by Mr Varma dealing with social sciences in midtwentieth century. We have liked the scheme of arrangement of the contributions on various disciplines as (i) political sciences, (ii) psychological sciences (iii) socio cultural sciences, (iv) economic sciences and (v) statistical sciences.

Of course there can be other methods of classification but this has appealed to us more than that given in Part I of the book and we have in Section I dealt with general features and arranged the report on other disciplines in conformity with the arrangement specified in the above para.

Problems connected with teaching

A few words would not be out of place in connection with Section I. In the first part of the book seven contributors dealt with seven disciplines and Mr S Mathai dealt with the structure of university education. With due deference to the learned authors, it may be submitted that Professor C N Vakil (who is now a director of the Reserve Bank of India) has been the only exhaustive contributor who has dealt with the various problems pertaining to the teaching of economics. Some of the problems are not directly connected with teaching but are so closely correlated to certain aspects of teaching that without dealing with them the report on teaching would remain only partial. We have therefore followed in the foot steps of Prof Vakil by dealing in Section I of the book with some problems which affect teaching, directly, indirectly or by implication.

For example, medium of instruction is so important on account of language acting as conveyance of knowledge. It is immaterial in which language a student is taught as long as the ultimate aim—that of acquisition of knowledge—is fulfilled. But there should be consistency in the medium. Horses should not be changed in midstream. If teaching is conducted through a medium which the students cannot comprehend, knowledge pushed at one end might be rich, but that gathered at the other would be poor. Also when the burden of learning several languages is crushing, little time, energy or inclination is left for real learning. If the container one has to carry on one's back is unduly heavy, the contents have necessarily to be curtailed to keep the weight within bearable limit. This is something that

is happening in India and as that has a direct bearing on teaching in Indian universities, we have dealt with the problem at some length and also given not only relevant excerpts from the report of the Education Commission (1964-1966) but a bird's eye view of the latest position to provide an appraisal of how matters stand.

Another matter having a close bearing on teaching is that of admissions. As figures in the next chapter would show, there is great desire for higher education among Indian people. Just as a vice if introduced in a society has a way of spreading without any effort so is it with virtues. Man is a great imitator, perhaps the greatest after the monkey. The masses copy the leaders. India was a giant slumbering and snoring all these generations, now the giant is not only wide awake and vigilant but striding along. Higher education was so far the privilege of a few. Now that millions of Indians have received higher education, the masses want to follow in their footsteps and aspire that their children also receive university degrees. This lure for obtaining degrees which not only equips a person for earning higher wages but adds to his social status and prestige has resulted in unprecedented rush to the colleges. This enthusiasm has to be harnessed and channels have to be provided for raising the intellectual level of the Indian masses.

As the problem is directly connected with teaching in Indian universities we could not just ignore it as unworthy of being included in a report covering the teaching of social sciences and have devoted an entire chapter to admissions—the main theme being whether higher education should be restricted and rationed or increasing opportunities afforded to those who opt for it.

A third important aspect is that of examinations. Foreigners who have no direct or intimate knowledge of examinations held by universities would find it difficult to appraise fully how examinations cut at the base of learning and instead of teaching being a mistress of knowledge, becomes a handmaid of examinations. A rather detailed analysis was called for this aspect, and a chapter has been exclusively devoted to it.

In order to give an idea of the tremendous progress higher education has made in the country we have given in chapter X the statistics as far as we could gather from the Government of India, the Union Ministry of Education, the University Grants Commission and the universities and colleges. Besides, figures have been collected from the press, books and important articles published in papers and magazines. We therefore take this opportunity of acknowledging with thanks the debt of gratitude we owe to all these sources, particularly, we are grateful to the University Grants Commission for the source of our figures has mostly been the UGC and its publications too various to be specified. This report is more a compilation of facts and figures collected from hundred and one places to present an integrated picture of teaching of social sciences in the country.

The views expressed are, however, our own and if in pleading the cause of higher education we have been too incisive in criticism of the other side, it has been only with the idea of bringing home the truth. We believe, if convictions are true we need not gloss them over or shroud them in delicate phraseology making them elegantly mystical, for that indeed would not serve the cause of education. If the authorities have not been so far following the right course there is no reason why they cannot correct it. Reports and surveys are made for retrospection and future benefit.

The question of statistics raises one important point. Among Indian universities only about half a dozen, Delhi, Jodhpur, Poona Karnatak, Kurukshetra, the Maharaja Sayaji Rao University of Baroda and Shivaji have separate faculties of social sciences. The rest have social science subjects included in the faculty of arts. Thus when we say that a university has so many students in the faculty of arts, it automatically follows that all students except those who have offered a language or philosophy for M A, are students of social sciences, for in B A a student has to take one or more subjects of social science. The universities generally have faculties of arts, science, commerce, law, medicine etc. and as separate statistics for social science subjects are not available, the figures for arts faculty have been given as the next best alternative.

Courses of Studies

The several branches of social sciences are so intertwined that at places it becomes difficult to demarcate the boundaries. In fact, whether as abstruse knowledge or as a study for practical purposes, it is difficult to divide the various disciplines into water tight compartments. Since the study of social sciences in our country during the last eleven years has spread out, it is necessary to deal with the latest position as existing now. As stated earlier, one of the aims of bringing out a publication of this type was that it should also be made to serve as an outline for visiting foreign social scientists and it becomes all the more necessary to provide a glimpse into the curricula as they have now been prescribed by the university authorities.

A book of this type by its very nature, cannot be as comprehensive as a directory, for there are sixty eight universities in the country and besides these a number of institutions, though not having the nomenclature of a university are deemed to be universities under the U G C Act, and are important centres of teaching of social sciences and, as such, to cover them all would lead to a maze of courses of study and syllabi in which one would be lost, and thus fail to appreciate the actual position in more important centres. We shall, therefore, present at the appropriate places as succinctly as possible the courses of study for the various branches of social sciences. The courses of studies given in the first part do not cover all the subjects or

branches of the subjects taught. We have, therefore, considered it essential to give details of what is being taught. When we say there is higher education in India it gives a broad idea—a telescopic view. When we add social sciences are being taught in Indian universities, our sphere of information is enlarged and more detailed. And when we name the disciplines (included in social sciences) in which degrees are being awarded, the area of information extends further. But the mere names of the disciplines cannot convey the details of teaching conducted or the topics covered. It is only the details of syllabi and the names of the books prescribed or recommended for reading, which give a detailed idea of the scope. We not only want a telescopic view but a view under the microscope as well, to provide a clear, integrated picture.

Teaching has many facets—the institutions, the teachers, the students, libraries, hostels, amenities, fees, cost of living, admissions, extra curricular activities, discipline of students, the financing of the institutions by the private agencies, quasi-government bodies, States and the Union Government, cost of books, availability of books, scholarships, stipends and the incentives but the most important of all these is what is being taught—the subjects of study—the syllabus prescribed for each discipline. Unless an outline of this is provided the whole report would be, if a local phrase be borrowed, a wedding party without the bridegroom. And the author of part II was struck with the lack of this part of information in some of the chapters in the first part. While dealing with economics Prof. Vakil has given syllabus for economics for the B.A. degree and headings of papers for M.A. examination. Prof. Kojelkar has also given an outline of syllabi for political science examinations but in other chapters the information is rather meagre and since a large number of readers in foreign countries as well as here would like to be acquainted with them we have even at the risk of the report becoming lengthy, included at places detailed syllabi.

This has been with a view to making the report self-sufficient. It is true the limitations of space have stood in the way and resulted in skipping certain details. Also particulars of course of study in one university in regard to one discipline and of another university in regard to another discipline have been given. There was no other alternative but to pick and choose and to refer here to the syllabus, which appeared representative of the syllabi, prescribed for similar degrees of sister universities. There are some seventy universities in India and leaving a few, which are technical, all of them provide instruction in economics, political science etc. and it would well nigh be impossible to cover them all—the various disciplines included in the economic sciences, political sciences, sociocultural sciences and law which all are covered in the wide embrace of social sciences. Besides, a mere citation of the headings of the papers

(set for examinations) would be drab and monotonous. So, the scheme adopted herein has been to give syllabus for one subject prescribed by one of the important universities and that outline would help furnish an idea of what is being taught in the subject in the Indian universities.

It is true all universities are not of equal importance or equally advanced in the matter of research or pursuing new fields of enquiry. Some of them are quite new and have not got over their teething trouble yet. Some others have to establish a tradition of reputation and are far back in the queue, not of their volition but due to historical developments. Comparisons are always odious, but the traditions of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras or Allahabad etc. have naturally assigned them pride of place.

The course of studies prescribed by the Bombay University for M A in economics has rather occupied much space. But we purposely wanted a detailed idea to be given about teaching of economics at Bombay, for this is one of the advanced centres of learning for economics.

The following are the subjects so far selected by the authorities for advanced study: astronomy, botany, chemistry, geology, mathematics, physics, zoology, economics, education, history, linguistics, philosophy, Sanskrit.

We find that of all the social science subjects only history and economics figure among the subjects selected by Indian authorities for advanced study centres. As the department of economics of the Bombay University has been a centre of advanced study for economics (public finance and industrial economics) this university has a pride of place in the teaching of economics for the M A degree. Delhi University in the center of advanced study in economics of development and economic history and Gokhale Institute of Economics and Politics, Poona for agricultural economics.

Similarly, it would not have been fair, if we had disposed of teaching of commerce in a few lines. Over 1.65 lakh students are studying commerce in Indian universities. The number of students in post graduate classes and doing research in the academic year 1965-66 was 9,117. The importance of commerce as a discipline as well as the strength of students demanded a detailed syllabus in the book.

An additional factor which has weighed with us in providing detailed syllabi, is the providing of data for future reform. Some of the syllabi have been criticised as being lopsided. In regard to teaching of political science, it has been pointed out by some critics that in our study of nations and countries, we have been over enthusiastic about some and have neglected the others. Of course, the size and importance of countries and nations and the various degrees to which they influence our interdependence and the extent and proximity and intimacy must regulate to-

some extent our study, yet, there should be some kind of equilibrium in the weightage we give to the study of foreign nations their constitutions, social and economic conditions, trade and commerce and our course of study—whether in history, political science, international relations or geography should strike a balance, and no judgment can be formed about the adequacy or otherwise of the syllabus, unless an outline of course of studies for political science etc. is provided

Inter Disciplinary Areas

Another practical difficulty has been the treatment of inter disciplinary areas. For example, teaching of international relations used to be a part of political science, a part of law and a part of economics (under foreign trade) and the history of various countries served as a background for the study of the present or past international relations but due to the advance of science, the world is becoming smaller and smaller. India and U.S.S.R. or India and U.K. or U.S.A. are at a few hours' distance now. The net work of broadcasting stations and television have brought them nearer than even the next door neighbours. It would take more time to knock at the door of one's neighbour and have an audience with him than to switch on the radio and the television. This dynamic development of science has brought about a complete transformation in our outlook of the teaching of international relations. It has metamorphosed the old conceptions, its study has received an unexpectedly massive impetus, and the teaching of this subject which was one of the last in the queue, has pushed itself to the forefront. Naturally the Indian universities are also, in appreciation of the above facts and factors, assigning added importance to this discipline.

In this report teaching of international relations has been dealt with as an independent discipline and also as an integral part of political science. But it must be pointed out that the background of this discipline is provided in some universities under history as well as under geography. International law is common to political science, law and international relations.

Similarly, statistics is taught as a subsidiary of mathematics as well as of economics. It forms part of syllabus of psychology also in some universities.

So also social psychology* provides an example of interdisciplinary area. It is a branch of psychology concerned with investigating the relationship of the individual to the group. The field is considered as distinct from general psychology on the one hand and sociology on the other. The basic differentiation between social psychology and general psychology lies in the fact that general psychology is interested in the behaviours of the individual organism, whereas social psychology is concerned

*See *Colliers Encyclopedia*.

with the organism in the group situation. Sociology on the other hand is contrasted with social psychology by social psychology's tendency to deal with the group to the exclusion of the individual. It must be, however, pointed out that these distinctions frequently are artificial and that there is a great deal of overlapping in the area of interest and research embraced by the three fields. Social psychology draws much of its material from related fields of which anthropology in addition to sociology and general psychology is recognized as one of the most important. Anthropology is useful to the social psychologist in that it offers evidence indicating that to a greater or lesser extent everything that the individual does is culturally determined. Sociology through its studies of group structure and movement and social control, provides the social psychologist with much of the case material that he attempts to interpret. General psychology likewise has provided the social psychologist with the experimental method and technique of control and measurement.

Thus we see how general psychology, social psychology, sociology and anthropology are mixed up with each other. In Indian universities, social psychology is taught under psychology as also under political science, sociology etc. Criminology is included in philosophy, also in sociology, social work etc. Examples can be multiplied but the above illustrations would do. At one stage in early twentieth century economics used to be called political economy and still—although the teaching of economics as well as political science has reached full fledged state of maturity as independent disciplines, many areas are common. Public administration is, in some universities, an independent discipline, in others it is included in political science and yet in others in economics.

We have therefore as a pragmatic measure treated as independent disciplines, those subjects in which M.A. degree is generally awarded by some Indian university or the other. Some subjects such as demography, have not reached a status to have an M.A. degree in it as an exclusive discipline, but we have devoted separate chapters to them, because the UNESCO has in its survey reports assigned them an independent status.

On account of the growing industrialisation of India, the problem of labour welfare has already become and is day by day becoming more and more important. We have therefore dealt with the teaching of this discipline under Industrial Sociology.

A number of readers would no doubt be interested in the report as a general survey of the progress of teaching of social sciences in the Indian universities during the last eleven years, others more interested in the details of teaching of a particular discipline would look up for information on the particular subject. We hope, the ample information provided would serve and satisfy both classes of readers.

CHAPTER X

PROGRESS DURING ELEVEN YEARS

The first part of this Book was published in 1956 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and we have to present a brief report of progress during the last eleven years. A complete integrated picture can be had only if we have the data in regard to the number of teaching institutions, the number of students and the details of the subject matter taught. Then only, we can make our comments on the qualitative aspect. It is true that the quality is more important than quantity, but quality, however excellent, would lose much of the purpose if it is not related to quantity. We shall therefore provide in this chapter relevant information and statistical data to give a general idea of the present position. In chapter I Mr S. Mathai stated "there are 31 full fledged Universities in India". In chapter II, Dr C. N. Vakil has furnished information in regard to the number of universities whether they were affiliating or residential and teaching and the faculties. He has also given in Appendix I of Chapter II a list of the universities their years of foundations etc. This list comprises 25 universities. This was in 1956. Dr K. G. Sayidain and Dr H. C. Gupta have in their book *Access to Higher Education*—prepared for the International Study of University Admissions, sponsored by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization—provided a list of forty-six universities. This book was published in 1962.

As there has been considerable expansion in the number of universities the latest position is being furnished below.

Table I

The latest position in regard to the number of universities and institutions deemed to be universities under the U. G. C. Act, is as follows

- 1 *Agra University, Agra (1927)* Affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering and technology, homoeopathic medicines, law, medicine (modern), veterinary science and animal husbandry, (colleges 144)
- 2 *Aligarh Muslim University (1921)* Residential and teaching, faculties, arts, science, commerce, engineering and technology, law, medicine and theology, (colleges 4)
- 3 *Allahabad University (1887)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts, science, commerce, law, engineering and medicine, (colleges 6)
- 4 *Andhra University, Waltair (1926)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering and technology, fine arts, law, medicine, oriental learning and teaching, (colleges 6)

- 5 *Andhra Pradesh Agricultural University, Hyderabad (1964)* Teaching (colleges 6)
- 6 *Annamalai University, Annamalai Nagar (1929)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts, science, education, engineering and technology, fine arts and oriental studies
- 7 *Bangalore University (1964)* Teaching, faculties arts, science, commerce, law, etc., (colleges 24)
- 8 *Banaras Hindu University (1916)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts, science, law, medicine and surgery, music and fine arts, oriental learning, technology and theology (colleges 17)
- 9 *Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda (1949)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts, science, commerce, education and psychology, fine arts, home science law, medicine, social work and technology (including engineering), (colleges 5)
- 10 *Bihar University, Muzaffarpur (1952)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts science, agriculture, commerce, engineering, law and medical science, (colleges 44)
11. *Bhagalpur University, Bhagalpur (1960)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering, fine arts and crafts and law, (colleges 43)
- 12 *Bombay University, Bombay (1857)* Teaching and federal, faculties arts, science, commerce, dentistry, law, medicine and technology, (colleges 53)
- 13 *Burdwan University, Burdwan (1960)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, engineering etc
- 14 *Calcutta University, Calcutta (1857)* Teaching and affiliating; faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce education, engineering, fine arts and music, journalism, law, medicine, technology and veterinary science, (colleges 168)
- 15 *Delhi University, Delhi (1922)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, education law, medical sciences, music and fine arts, social sciences, technology, (colleges 36)
- 16 *Dibrugarh University, Dibrugarh (1965)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, etc., (colleges 29)
- 17 *Gauhati University (1948)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts science, agriculture, commerce, engineering, law and medicine, (colleges 40)
- 18 *Gorakhpur University, Gorakhpur (1957)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, law and engineering, (colleges 4)
- 19 *Gujarat University, Ahmedabad (1950)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts (including education), science agriculture ayurvedic medicine, commerce, law medicine, technology (including engineering), (colleges 105)

- 20 *Indira Kala Sangit Vishwavidyalaya, Khairagarh (1957)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculties music and dance
- 21 *Indore University (1964)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, etc., (colleges 17)
- 22 *Jabalpur University, Jabalpur (1957)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, home science, law, medicine, veterinary science, (colleges 22)
- 23 *Jawahar Lal Krishna Vidyalaya, Jabalpur (1964)* Faculty of agriculture, (colleges 8)
- 24 *Jadavpur University, Jadavpur (1955)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts, science, engineering and technology, (college 1)
- 25 *Jammu and Kashmir University, Srinagar (1948)* Teaching and affiliating; faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, medicine, oriental learning, social sciences
- 26 *Jyoti University Gwalior (1964)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, law, etc., (colleges 27)
- 27 *Jadhpur University Jadhpur (1962)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts, science, commerce, engineering, law and social sciences, (colleges 2)
- 28 *Kalyani University, Kalyani (1960)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts, science, agriculture, (colleges 4).
- 29 *Kameshwar Singh Darbhanga Sanskrit University, Darbhanga (1961)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arthashastra ayurveda, darshana, jyotisha, purana, sahitya, veda, vyakarana, (college 1)
- 30 *Kanpur University, Kanpur (1966)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, law, etc.
- 31 *Karnatak University, Dharwar (1949)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, engineering, law, medicine, social sciences, (colleges 58)
- 32 *Kerala University, Trivandrum (1937)* Teaching and federal, faculties arts, science, agriculture, ayurveda, commerce, education, engineering fine arts, law, medicine, oriental studies, technology and veterinary science, (colleges 81)
- 33 *Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra (1956)* Residential and teaching, faculties arts and languages, education, Indic studies, science and social sciences, (colleges 4)
- 34 *Lucknow University, Lucknow (1921)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts, science, ayurveda, commerce, law, medicine (colleges 18)
- 35 *Madras University, Madras (1857)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering,

fine arts, law, medicine, oriental learning, teaching technology and veterinary science

- 36 *Madurai University, Madurai (1965)*, faculties arts, science, commerce, etc., (colleges 50)
- 37 *Magadh University, Bodh Gaya (1962)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, veterinary science, (colleges 34)
- 38 *Marathwada University, Aurangabad (1958)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, law, medicine, (colleges 27)
39. *Meerut University, Meerut (1965)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, law etc
- 40 *Mysore University, Mysore (1916)* Teaching and affiliating; faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, law, medicine and technology, (colleges 58)
- 41 *Nagpur University, Nagpur (1923)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture commerce, education, engineering, technology, law, medicine, (colleges 6)
- 42 *North Bengal University, Siliguri (1962)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, engineering, (colleges 19).
- 43 *Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology, Bhubneswar, (1962)* Teaching and residential, faculties agriculture, and veterinary science and animal husbandry, (colleges 4)
- 44 *Osmania University, Hyderabad (1918)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, law, medicine, technology and veterinary science, (colleges 45)
45. *Punjab University, Chandigarh (1947)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture commerce, dairying and animal husbandry, design and fine arts, education, engineering and technology, language, law and medicine, (colleges 140)
- 46 *Patna University, Patna (1917)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts, science, commerce, education, engineering, law and medicine, (colleges 10)
- 47 *Poona University, Poona (1949)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture ayurvedic medicine, commerce, engineering fine arts and music, law medicine and mental, moral and social sciences, (colleges 45)
- 48 *Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana (1962)* Teaching and residential, faculties agriculture, veterinary science and animal sciences, (colleges 7)
- 49 *Punjab University, Patiala (1962)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts and social sciences, science, business administration and commerce, education, engineering and technology, languages, medicine, (colleges 9)

- 50 *Rabindra Bharti, Calcutta (1962)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts and fine arts including dance and drama, music and Tagore literature, (college 1)
- 51 *Rajasthan University, Jaipur (1947)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, education, engineering and technology, law, medicine and pharmaceuticals, (colleges 75)
- 52 *Ranchi University, Ranchi (1960)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, education, engineering, law, medicine and mineral technology, veterinary science, (colleges 35)
- 53 *Ravishankar University, Raipur (1964)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties of arts, science, commerce
- 54 *Roarkee University, Roorkee (1949)* Residential and teaching, faculties engineering and science
- 55 *Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth, Vallabh Vidyannagar (1955)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering (including technology), (colleges 11)
- 56 *Saugor University, Sagar (1946)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, education, engineering and technology and law, (colleges 65)
- 57 *Saurashtra University, (1966)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties of arts, commerce, science, law etc
- 58 *Shivaji University, Kolhapur (1962)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties of arts, science, commerce, law, agriculture, medicines, engineering and social sciences, fine arts, and music, (colleges 41)
- 59 *Shreemati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University, Bombay (1951)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculty arts, (colleges 14)
- 60 *Shri Venkateshwar University, Tirupati (1954)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, agriculture, commerce, engineering, fine arts, medicine, oriental learning, teaching and veterinary science, (colleges 21)
- 61 *South Gujarat University (1966)*, faculties arts, science etc
- 62 *Udaipur University, Udaipur (1962)* Teaching and affiliating, faculty agriculture, (colleges 13)
- 63 *U P Agricultural University, Pantnagar (1960)* faculties agriculture, agricultural engineering and technology and veterinary science, (colleges 3)
- 64 *University of Agricultural Sciences Hebbal Bangalore (1964)* Teaching and residential, faculties agriculture, agricultural engineering and technology and veterinary science, (colleges 3)
- 65 *Utkal University, Bhubaneswar (1943)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science, commerce, education, engineering, law and medicine, (colleges 63)

- 66 *Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishwavidyalaya, Varanasi Cantt (1958)*. Teaching and affiliating, faculties . humanities and education (*shiksha*)
67. *Vikram University, Ujjain (1957)* Teaching and affiliating, faculties arts, science agriculture, commerce, education, engineering law, medicine, physical education and veterinary science and animal husbandry, (colleges 42).
- 68 *Vishwa Bhairavi University, Santiniketan, (1951)* Teaching and residential, The university is not organised into faculties. (colleges 6)

Institutions deemed to be universities under U G C Act.

69. *Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (Est 1909)*. Teaching and residential, faculties science and engineering
- 70 *Indian Agricultural Research Institute, New Delhi (1905)* Teaching and residential, faculties . agriculture.
- 71 *Indian School of International Studies, New Delhi (1955)* Teaching and residential, faculties international studies
- 72 *Gurukul Kangri Vishwavidyalaya, Haridwar (1900)* Teaching and residential, faculties arts, science, agriculture, ayurveda and oriental
- 73 *Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi (1920)* Teaching and residential faculties humanities, science, and education
- 74 *Gujarat Vidyapeeth, Ahmedabad (1920)* Teaching and residential, faculties education, Hindi, social sciences, and tribal welfare
- 75 *Kashi Vidyapeeth, Varanasi (1921)* Teaching and residential, faculties samaj seva and shastra gyan
- 76 *Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay (1936)* Teaching and residential, faculties social, work social science
- 77 *Birla Institute of Technology and Science, Pilani (1964)* Teaching and residential, faculties engineering, technology, etc

Institutions of National Importance declared by the Acts of Parliament

- 78 *All India Institute of Medical Sciences, New Delhi (1956)* Residential and teaching, faculties medicine
- 79 *Hindi Sahitya Sammelan (Hindi Vishwavidyalaya Allahabad (1910)* Examining, faculties agriculture, education, language and literature, medicine or ayurveda, science, shorthand and typewriting
- 80 *Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay (1958)* Teaching and residential, faculties engineering, humanities and sciences.
81. *Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi (1951)* Teaching and residential, faculties, applied mechanics, chemical engineering chemistry, civil engineering, electrical engineering, humanities, mathematics, mechanical engineering, physics and textile technology

- 82 *Indian Institute of Technology, Kanpur (1959)* Teaching and residential, faculties chemical engineering, chemistry, civil engineering, electrical engineering, humanities, mathematics mechanical engineering, metallurgical engineering and physics
- 83 *Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur (1951)* Teaching and residential, faculties agriculture, engineering, applied chemistry, architecture and regional planning, chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, electronics and communication, engineering, geology and geophysics, humanities and social sciences, mathematics, mechanical engineering, metallurgical engineering, mining engineering, naval architecture and physics and meteorology
- 84 *Indian Institute of Technology, Madras (1959)* Teaching and residential, faculties engineering, humanities and sciences
- 85 *Indian Statistical Institute Calcutta (1931)* Teaching and residential, faculty statistics

The latest position in regard to the universities—faculties and number of colleges whether constituent or affiliated, attached to each university—has been furnished in the preceding pages

Progress has many dimensions. The increase in the number of teaching institutions, teachers and students are three strong pointers to the tremendous progress the country has made during the last eleven years

Figures are more eloquent than words and the following tables are furnished which would give adequate idea of the progress we have made on the various fronts in the field of teaching of social sciences in Indian universities. The number of students studying social sciences in Indian universities is approximately 50% of the total enrolment. No separate figures for faculties of social science or social science subjects are available except those for commerce and law. In the faculty of arts, the number of social science students may roughly be taken to be 90% of the total number in the faculty

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Number of Recognized Educational Institutions 1959-60 to 1962-63

Year	Universities		Boards of Education		Arts and science colleges including Research Institutions	
	For Men	For Women	For Men	For Women	For Men	For Women
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1949-50	25	1	6	—	418	66
1950-51	26	1	7	—	417	69
1951-52	28	1	9	—	420	76
1952-53	28	1	9	—	530	82
1953-54	29	1	10	—	569	103
1954-55	30	1	10	—	597	93
1955-56	31	1	11	—	612	124
1956-57	32	1	12	—	700	114
1957-58	36	1	14	—	737	125
1958-59	39	1	15	—	790	135
1959-60	39	1	15	—	838	150
1960-61	44	1	15	—	915	165
1961-62	45	1	15	—		
1962-63	54	1	15	—	1244	
					(for men and women)	

TABLE III
Number of Scholars in Recognized Institutions From 1949-50 to 1961-62 (By Stages of Instruction)

Year	Intermediate		B A and B Sc.		M A. and M Sc.		Research	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1949-50	175,711	23,540	74,301	10,759	12,033	1,656	837	85
1950-51	194,921	26,416	75,032	11,636	14,401	2,127	1,851	139
1951-52	222,817	28,978	85,671	13,800	14,348	2,329	1,385	155
1952-53	249,941	34,653	92,719	15,922	16,843	2,841	1,849	298
1953-54	287,528	40,588	104,315	17,358	17,976	3,141	1,871	319
1954-55	322,913	47,681	113,393	20,502	18,989	3,572	2,164	354
1955-56	341,539	54,909	126,130	24,772	21,293	4,848	2,193	371
1956-57	365,009	60,935	138,858	29,868	23,233	4,559	2,498	425
1957-58	375,009	63,407	151,651	37,319	24,407	5,575	2,525	458
1958-59	300,595	63,403	165,876	42,214	29,108	6,726	3,100	582
1959-60	416,036 ¹	76,943	196,927	42,439	31,827	7,664	3,021	657
1960-61	381,381	76,517	235,633	63,979	36,873	9,215	3,879	768
1961-62	358,824	77,021	281,050	80,715	40,983	10,807	4,178	779

Figures for commerce and law have been given at the end of the respective chapters

TABLE IV
*Number of Colleges for Men and Women and of Students
 Men and Women from 1950-51 to 1961-62*

	<i>Colleges</i>		<i>Students</i>	
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
1950-51	755	91	356,816	46,673
1953-54	914	114	484,244	69,801
1954-55	1,000	127	535,085	83,107
1955-56	1,104	143	585,008	96,171
1956-57	1,221	165	639,252	110,943
1957-58	1,334	201	734,730	124,907
1958-59	1,488	195 ¹	698,875	134,659
1959-60	1,592	259	724,097	151,932
1960-61	1,816	283	743,296	167,924
1961-62	2,008	313	978,488	207,611

¹ Decrease due to revised definition of colleges for women adopted in Bombay State

TABLE V
Enrolment, Staff and Staff Student Ratio, 1964-65

<i>S No</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Total Enrolment</i>	<i>Staff including Tut/Dem</i>	<i>Staff Student ratio</i>
1	Agra	62,512	3,881	16.1
2	Aligarh	5,293	478	11.1
3	Allahabad	9,988	537	17.9
4	Andhra	33,757	2,583	13.1
5	Annamalai	3,928	364	10.8
6	Babaras	8,967	789	11.4
7	Bangalore	18,084	1,084	16.7
8	Baroda	11,961	676	17.7
9	Bhagalpur	22,451	1,148	19.6
10.	Bihar	31,775	1,425	22.3
11	Bombay	58,606	3,214	18.2
12	Burdwan	26,903	1,271	21.2
13	Calcutta	1,36,243	6,600	20.6
14	Delhi	30,431	1,897	16.0
15	Gauhati	48,197	2,636	18.3
16	Gorakhpur	17,206	1,087	15.8
17	Gujarat	63,835	3,070	20.8
18	Indore	11,438	526	21.3
19	Jabalpur	12,134	627	19.0
20	Jadavpur	4,221	345	12.2
21	Jammu & Kashmir	13,023	813	16.0

<i>S N</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Total Enrolment</i>	<i>Staff Including Tut/Dem</i>	<i>Staff Student ratio</i>
22	Jiwaji	12,858	642	20.2
23	Jodhpur	6,962	394	17.7
24	Kalyani	856	121	7.1
25	Karnatak	24,755	1,457	17.0
26	Kerala	83,452	4,254	19.6
27	Kurukshetra	1,561	168	9.3
28	Lucknow	16,326	1,116	14.6
29	Madras	84,350	5,989	14.1
30	Magadh	24,791	1,017	24.4
31	Marathwada	11,990	684	17.5
32	Mysore	28,837	1,787	16.1
33	Nagpur	40,481	1,929	21.0
34	North Bengal	10,175	498	20.4
35	Osmania	30,122	2,083	14.5
36	Panjab	71,746	4,000	17.9
37.	Patna	11,674	645	18.1
38	Poona	30,638	1,791	17.1
39	Punjab	4,766	409	11.7
40	Rajasthan	29,504	1,945	15.2
41	Ranchi	23,212	1,285	18.1
42	Ravi Shankar	11,911	733	16.2

TABLE VI

*Enrolment University Department/University Colleges
(U P Board Excluded), 1964-65*

		<i>Arts</i>	<i>Commerce</i>	<i>Law</i>
1	<i>P U C</i>			
	(a) University Departments	9,054	1,336	—
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	135,375	27,760	—
2	<i>Intermediate</i>			
	(a) University Departments	62	—	—
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	11,137	4,467	—
3	<i>Graduate</i>			
	(a) University Department	15,543	7,161	11,782
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	2,93,064	81,900	18,520
4	<i>Post Graduate</i>			
	(a) University Departments	26,444	3,351	637
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	20,767	4,555	346
5	<i>Research</i>			
	(a) University Departments	2,965	169	53
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	463	67	—
6	<i>Diploma/Certificate</i>			
	(a) University Departments	4,178	840	344
	(b) Affiliated Colleges	4,134	183	310

TABLE VII

*Percentage of Annual Increase in the Number of Students
from 1954-55 to 1965-66*

Year	Total enrolment	Increase over the preceding year	Percentage of increase
1954-55	6 51 479	71 361	12.3
1955-56	7 12 697	61 218	9.4
1956-57	7 69 468	56 771	8.0
1957-58	8 27 341	57 873	7.3
1958-59	9 28 622	101 281	12.2
1959-60	9 97 137	68 515	7.4
1960-61	10 34 934	37 797	3.8
1961-62	11 55 380	1 20 446	11.6
1962-63	12 72 666	1 17 286	10.2
1963-64	13 84 697	1 12 031	8.8
1964-65	15 28 227	1 43 530	10.4
1965-66	17 28 773	2 00 546	13.1

TABLE VIII

Student Enrolment Stage Wise from 1955-56 to 1965-66

Year	PUC/Inter/ Pre Professional	Graduate	Post graduate/ Research	Diploma/ Certificate	Total
1955-56	4 17 882	2 48 690	33 558	12,367	7 12 697
1956-57	4 42 542	2 76 999	36 508	13 419	7 69 468
1957-58	4 55 895	3 14 383	41 385	15 278	8,27 341
1958-59	5 00 754	3 59 829	49 288	18 751	9 28 622
1959-60	5 15 603	4 07 415	57 411	17 008	9 97 137
1960-61	4,90 739	4 64 848	64 073	10 704	10 34 384
1961-62	4 91 719	5 71 485	72 859	19 317	11 55 380
1962-63	5 20 571	6 51 805	76 594	23 696	12,72 666
1963-64	5 42 587	7 39 607	82,580	19 923	13 84 697
1964-65	5 77 950	8,35 804	91 305	23 168	15 28,227
1965-66	6 61 889	9 44 015	1 00 463	22 406	17 28 773

The total enrolment in colleges has thus risen from 7 12 lakh to 17 26 lakh during a period of ten years. The position in 1965-66 in regard to the number of students in the University colleges and the affiliated colleges was as follows

Students in university colleges	2 07 558
Students in affiliated colleges	15 21 215
TOTAL	17 28,773

TABLE IX
Faculty-wise Annual Enrolments during the period 1961-62 to 1965-66

S No	Faculty	1961-62	Percentage of total	1962-63	Percentage of total	1963-64	Percentage of total	1964-65	Percentage of total	1965-66	Percentage of total
1	Arts (including oriental learning)	5,11,940	44.9	5,35,291	42.1	5,79,049	41.0	6,41,106	42.0	7,06,641	40.9
2	Science	3,36,772	29.2	3,90,174	30.7	4,35,925	31.5	4,70,702	31.3	5,65,254	32.7
3	Commerce	1,25,142	10.0	1,21,971	9.6	1,30,578	9.4	1,47,789	9.7	1,65,283	9.6
4	Education	21,718	1.9	25,630	2.0	26,727	1.9	29,528	1.9	33,546	1.9
5	Engineering and Technology	58,168	5.0	60,509	5.4	73,015	5.3	78,114	5.1	85,555	4.9
6	Medicine	39,569	3.4	49,546	3.9	54,708	4.0	61,742	4.0	70,088	4.0
7	Agriculture	24,794	2.1	38,837	3.0	41,116	3.0	44,228	2.9	51,190	3.0
8	Veterinary Science	5,214	0.5	5,524	0.4	5,624	0.4	5,711	0.4	6,257	0.4
9	Law	29,401	2.6	28,944	2.3	29,571	2.1	32,000	2.1	37,318	2.2
10	Others	2,712	0.2	8,152	0.6	8,384	0.6	9,227	0.6	7,641	0.4
Total		11,55,300	100.0	12,72,366	100.0	13,04,697	100.0	15,28,227	100.0	17,28,773	100.0

TABLE X

Post-graduate Enrolment (Faculty-wise) during 1954-55 and the period 1961-62 to 1965-66

S No	Faculty	1954 55	1961-62	1962 63	1963 64	1964 65	Increase in 1964 65 as compared with 1954 55 (1954 55=100)	Increase in 1965-66 as compared with 1961 62 (1961-62=100)
1	Arts	16,938	40,265	42,196	43,908	47,316	279	51,396
2	Science	6,023	14,511	15,292	17,000	18,392	305	20,858
3	Commerce	2,415	6,604	6,460	7,027	7,906	927	8,783
4	Education	663	1,104	954	1,361	1,717	250	1,603
5	Engineering & Tech	415	661	1,423	1,386	1,510	371	1,510
6	Medicine	651	1,341	2,372	2,267	3,417	529	3,396
7	Vet Science		191	240	274			423
8	Agriculture	327	1,411	1,698	2,204	2,900	687	2,797
9	Law	344	916	607	1,214	903	266	1,014
10	Others		26	35	44			
Total		27,801	67,610	17,297	76,283	81,201	303	91,830
								135.8

TABLE XI
Research Enrolment Faculty-wise during 1954-55 and 1961-62 to 1965-66

S No	Faculty	1954-55	1961 62	1962 63	1963 64	1964-65	Increase in 1964 65 as compared with 1954 55 (1954-55=100)	1965 66	Increase in 1965 66 as compared with 1961 62 (1961 62=100)
1	Arts	1,229	2,934	2,529	2,862	3,440	280	3956	134.8
2	Science	963	1,876	2,025	2,251	2,850	205	34,12	181.9
3	Commerce	70	160	224	229	236	337	334	208.8
4	Education	82	129	81	135	116	141	184	142.6
5	Engineering & Technology	65	46	195	178	179	275	278	604.3
6	Medicine	16	46	126	68	101	631	93	202.2
7	Veterinary Science	37	—	13	22	—	—	50	—
8	Agriculture	—	41	59	60	129	349	261	636.6
9	Law	—	17	37	64	53	—	65	382.4
10	Others	—	—	8	26	—	—	—	—
Total		2,464	5,249	5,297	5,895	7,104	288	8,633	164.5

TABLE XII

*Statements of Number of Students who were Awarded Degrees
Comparative figures for 1954 and 1964*

Degree	1954		1964		Output Index 1954- 100	Average Annual Rate of Increase in output
	$\frac{\text{Number appeared}}{\text{Number passed}}$	Pass percentage	$\frac{\text{Number appeared}}{\text{Number passed}}$	Pass percentage		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B A.	$\frac{79,271}{36,379}$	45.9	$\frac{1,45,650}{81,394}$	51.0	223.7	8.5
M.A.	$\frac{10,488}{7,889}$	75.2	$\frac{29,527}{24,279}$	82.2	307.8	11.9
B. Com	$\frac{14,543}{6,612}$	45.5	$\frac{34,317}{17,582}$	51.2	265.9	10.3
M Com.	$\frac{963}{876}$	91.0	$\frac{3,583}{2,652}$	73.9	302.7	11.7
LL B	$\frac{9,426}{5,909}$	62.7	$\frac{12,731}{7,536}$	59.2	127.5	2.4

TABLE XIII
State-wise University Enrolment (U. P. Board included), 1964-65

S No	State	Area in Sq miles	Population (estimated) mid-year 1964	No of Universities	Students enrolled	No of students per million of population
1	Andhra	1,06,286	3,83,589,00	4	78,691	2,051
2	Assam	84,895	1,30,690,00	1	48,197	3,680
3	Bihar	67,196	5,01,250,00	6	1,13,903	2,272
4	Gujarat	72,245	2,25,791,00	3	93,787	3,711
5	Jammu and Kashmir		37,290,00	1	15,023	3,492
6	Kerala	15,002	1,03,622,00	1	93,452	4,515
7	Madhya Pradesh	1,71,217	3,51,495,00	8	99,261	2,540
8	Madras	50,331	3,56,295,00	2	80,270	2,470
9	Maharashtra	1,10,717	4,30,639,00	6	1,66,394	3,862
10	Mysore	74,210	2,54,606,00	4	71,676	2,014
11	Orissa	60,164	1,88,826,00	2	27,202	1,441
12	Punjab	47,205	2,24,775,00	4	79,830	3,552
13	Rajasthan	1,32,152	2,21,745,00	3	40,591	1,031
14	Uttar Pradesh	1,13,654	7,93,805,00	9	3,34,122	4,209
15	West Bengal	93,829	3,81,983,00	7	1,79,446	4,698
16	Delhi	573	31,372,00	1	30,431	9,700
17	Other Union Territories		57,324,00		—	—
Total Area of India Excluding Jammu and Kashmir		1,74,025	47,55,460,00	62	15,20,227	3,214

TABLE XIV

State-wise Enrolment in 1964-65 in the Faculties of Arts, Commerce and Law, the Percentage of Enrolment in each Faculty to the Total Enrolment in Universities and Colleges, and Students per million of Population (estimated Mid-year Population in 1964)

S.N.	State	Arts	Percentage of total enrolment	Per million of population	Commerce	Percentage of total enrolment	Per million of population	Law	Percentage of total enrolment	Per million of population
1	Andhra	18,101	23.1	474	5,526	7.8	144	1,291	1.6	34
2	Assam	32,667	67.9	2,500	2,367	4.9	181	527	1.1	40
3	Bihar	61,253	53.0	1,222	5,774	5.1	115	2,846	2.5	57
4	Gujarat	30,966	37.0	1,371	12,329	14.7	546	3,319	3.9	147
5	Jammu & Kashmir	5,176	39.7	1,388	235	1.8	63	—	—	—
6	Kerala	20,632	34.3	1,359	3,590	4.3	196	524	0.6	29
7	Madhya Pradesh	16,656	41.1	1,014	10,833	12.1	300	3,152	3.5	93
8	Madras	23,002	26.1	645	5,697	6.4	160	1,161	1.3	32
9	Maharashtra	59,363	35.7	1,379	29,519	17.7	605	5,050	3.0	117
10	Mysore	16,703	23.3	656	6,058	0.5	230	1,905	2.7	75
11	Orissa	11,826	43.5	626	706	2.9	42	428	.5	23
12	Punjab	39,900	50.0	1,775	1,381	2.0	70	903	1.2	41
13	Rajasthan	16,614	40.9	749	6,656	16.5	300	1,101	2.7	50
14	Uttar Pradesh	151,535*	45.3	1,906	24,332*	7.3	307	5,230	1.5	66
15	West Bengal	68,309	49.2	2,312	30,017	16.8	706	3,770	2.1	99
16	Delhi	20,563	67.6	6,555	2,409	8.2	723	705	2.3	225
Total		6,41,106	42.0	1340	1,47,709	9.7	311	32,000	2.1	67

* U.P. Board included

TABLE XV
Comparative figures of University Enrolments for 1963-64 and 1964-65 and Percentage of increase during one year

S No	University	Enrolments 1964-65					1964-65 inded* 1963-64=100
		Enrolment 1963-64	Total enrolment	Enrolment UT D*	Enrolment affiliated colleges		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1	Agra	58,189	62,512	410	62,102	107	
2	Aligarh	5,148	5,298	5,298	—	103	
3	Aligarh	9,662	9,908	6,970	3,018	103	
4	Andhra Pradesh Agricultural	24,065	31,757	2,918	30,839	99	
5	Andhra Pradesh Agricultural	—	1,945	1,945	—	—	
6	Annapurna	3,522	3,928	3,928	—	112	
7	Annapurna	8,732	8,967	8,049	918	103	
8	Banaras	—	18,084	1,050	17,034	—	
9	Bangalore	11,191	11,961	11,961	—	107	
10	Baroda	20,286	22,451	5,100	17,351	111	
11	Bihar	30,694	31,775	7,308	24,467	104	
12	Bombay	55,669	58,666	2,133	56,473	105	
13	Burdawn	24,803	26,903	832	26,071	108	
14	Calcutta	1,20,829	1,36,213	9,403	1,26,840	113	
15	Delhi	26,432	30,431	6,249	24,182	113	
16	Gauhati	46,239	48,197	2,091	46,106	104	
17	Gorakhpur	16,800	17,206	3,620	13,586	102	
18	Gujarat	54,744	63,835	840	62,995	117	
19	Iodira Kala Sangit Viasavidyalaya	91	96	96	—	105	
20	Indore	—	11,438	—	11,438	—	
21	Jabalpur	11,628	12,434	253	12,181	107	
22	Jadavpur	3,956	4,221	4,165	56	107	
23	Jammu and Kashmir	11,407	13,023	572	12,451	114	
24	Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Visva- vidyalaya	—	2,342	2,342	—	—	
25	Jwaji	—	12,858	—	12,858	—	

*University teaching departments/University colleges

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Jodhpur	5,304	6,962	6,763	199	123
27.	Kalyani	662	856	856	—	129
28	K S Darbhanga Sanskrit Visva- vidyalaya	5,216	—	—	—	—
29	Karnatak	21,606	24,755	2,941	21,814	115
30	Kerala	66,323	83,452	470	82,982	126
31	Kurukshetra	1,501	1,561	1,561	—	120
32	Lucknow	15,767	16,326	9,514	6,812	104
33	Madras	70,671	84,350	1,102	83,248	119
34	Magadh	24,021	24,791	6,270	18,521	103
35	Marathwada	10,912	11,990	672	11,318	110
36	Mysore	46,476	28,837	2,826	26,011	62
37	Nagpur	34,805	40,481	1,515	38,966	116
38	North Bengal	0,035	10,175	291	9,881	127
39	Orissa Univ Agri & Technology	986	1,229	1,229	—	125
40	Osmania	22,336	30,122	12,482	17,640	109
41	Panjab	61,534	71,746	5,291	66,515	117
42	Patna	10,946	11,674	11,674	—	107
43	Poona	27,808	30,638	747	29,891	110
44	Punjab Agri	1,999	1,757	1,757	—	126
45	Punjab	4,124	4,766	225	4,541	116
46	Rabindra Bharati	182	200	200	—	110
47.	Rajasthan	31,309	29,504	6,266	23,238	91
48	Raochi	22,780	23,212	5,981	17,231	102
49	Ravishankar	—	11,911	—	11,911	—
50	Roorkee	2,933	2,168	2,168	—	93
51	S V Vidyapeeth	7,381	7,991	665	7,326	108
52	Saugor	25,000	19,665	2,729	16,934	78
53.	S N O T Women's	4,624	4,610	2,553	2,087	100
54	Shivaji	17,889	19,979	63	19,916	115
55.	Shri Venkateswara	11,471	12,867	1,154	11,713	112
56	Udaipur	1,116	4,425	2,985	1,440	370
57.	Utkal	21,393	25,973	3,995	21,978	121
58.	U P. Agricultural	843	1,030	1,030	—	122
59	Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishwavidyala	601	627	627	—	91
60	Vikram	36,025	10,542	3,563	14,959	49
61	Visva Bharati	693	810	848	—	122
Total		11,84,697	13,18,227	1,90,489	31,27,730	111

TABLE XVI

*Faculty-wise break-up of University Enrolment
1964-65*

(All figures of the table include both teaching departments as well as affiliated colleges)

<i>S. No.</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Arts</i>	<i>Commerce</i>	<i>Law</i>
1.	Agra	29,077	5,346	1,887
2.	Aligarh	1,144	302	182
3.	Allahabad	5,144	636	568
4.	Andhra	7,296	2,216	114
5.	A P. Agricultural	—	—	—
6.	Annamalai	903	216	—
7.	Banaras	2,824	583	203
8.	Bangalore	2,274	1,459	1,163
9.	Baroda	2,604	1,762	534
10.	Bhagalpur	13,369	1,048	673
11.	Bihar	17,192	1,540	810
12.	Bombay	19,059	6,844	3,635
13.	Burdwan	14,049	3,518	—
14.	Calcutta	67,082	25,212	3,778
15.	Delhi	26,563	2,489	705
16.	Gauhati	32,667	2,367	527
17.	Gorakhpur	7,991	581	728
18.	Gujarat	26,242	9,824	2,680
19.	I K S. Viswavidyalaya	—	—	—
20.	Indore	4,335	1,698	614
21.	Jaharpur	4,459	1,696	408
22.	Jadavpur	900	—	—
23.	Jammu & Kashmir	5,176	235	—
24.	Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Viswavidyalaya	—	—	—
25.	Jiwaji	6,138	634	373
26.	Jodhpur	2,251	1,038	316
27.	Kalyani	52	—	—

Table

<i>S No</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Arts</i>	<i>Commerce</i>	<i>Law</i>
28	Karnatak	8,962	1,624	514
29	Kerala	28,632	3,590	524
30	Kurukshetra	777	—	—
31	Lucknow	6,567	884	1,662
32	Madras	22,099	5,481	1,161
33	Magadh	14,575	955	320
34	Marathwada	3,601	1,814	289
35	Mysore	5,467	2,975	228
36	Nagpur	14,566	12,434	363
37	North Bengal	5,839	1,287	—
38	Orissa Univ of Agri & Tech	—	—	—
39	Osmania	7,681	2,907	1,177
40	Panjab	37,515	1,180	983
41	Patna	6,202	604	549
42	Poona	9,955	5,269	540
43	Punjab Agricultural	—	—	—
44	Punjabi	1,608	401	—
45	Rabindra Bharti	62	—	—
46	Rajasthan	12,990	5,451	654
47	Ranchi	9,915	1,627	494
48	Ravishankar	4,205	1,987	301
49	Roorkee	—	—	—
50	S V Vidyapeeth	2,120	743	105
51	Saugar	8,657	2,486	683
52	S N D T Women's	3,888	—	—
53	Shivaji	8,294	3,158	223
54	Sri Venkateswara	3,204	403	—
55	Udaipur	1,373	167	131
56	Utkal	11,826	786	428
57	U P Agricultural	—	—	—
58	V S Viswavidyalaya	588	—	—
59	Vikram	8,902	2,332	773
60	Visva (a) Bharti	325	—	—
<i>Total</i>		5,43,186	1,31,789	32,000

TABLE XVII
Enrolment in the Faculty of Arts by stages of instruction courses in each University, 1964-65
(All figures of the table include both-teaching departments as well as affiliated colleges)

S No.	University	PUC	I	G	PG	R	DIC	Total
1	Agra	—	—	19,950	8,615	459	53	29,074
2	Aligarh	143	—	401	279	140	181	1,144
3	Allahabad	—	—	3,596	1,484	36	28	5,144
4	Andhra	2,704	—	3,461	408	89	634	7,296
5	Annamalai	208	—	304	145	18	228	903
6	Banaras	121	—	1,893	603	101	168	2,824
7	Bangalore	582	—	1,483	209	—	—	2,274
8	Baroda	626	—	1,203	310	80	305	2,604
9	Bhagalpur	4,391	—	0,130	818	—	—	13,369
10	Bihar	4,842	—	10,403	1,859	88	—	17,192
11.	Bombay	—	11,019	6,335	1,401	198	106	19,059
12	Burdwan]	3,538	—	10,004	507	—	—	14,049
13	Calcutta	19,698	—	44,064	2,783	34	503	67,082
14	Delhi	—	—	17,125	2,251	580	607	20,563
15	Gauhati	13,824	—	17,784	1,057	2	—	32,667
16	Gorakhpur	—	—	6,898	871	200	22	7,991
17	Gujarat	8,605	110	14,711	2,723	19	66	26,242
18	Indore	—	—	3,466	822	47	—	4,335
19	Jabalpur	—	—	3,447	910	102	—	4,459
20	Jadavpur	34	—	244	612	10	—	900
21.	Jammu & Kashmir	1,743	—	2,019	333	15	1,066	5,176
22	Jwaji	—	—	5,454	667	—	17	6,138
23	Jodhpur	900	—	1,590	234	67	—	2,251
24	Kalyani	—	—	14	38	—	—	52
25	Karnatak	3,099	—	4,798	300	67	98	8,962
26	Kerala	17,018	—	10,103	923	26	532	28,632
27.	Kuruksetra	150	—	314	245	69	—	777

S No	University	PUG	I	G	PG	R	D/C	Total
28	Lucknow	—	—	4,817	1,263	116	371	6,567
29	Madras	10,000	—	9,786	807	55	1,451	22,049
30	Madras	4,634	—	9,341	590	18	—	14,575
31.	Marathwada	1,451	—	1,732	336	38	44	3,601
32	Mysore	1,601	—	3,512	255	19	—	5,467
33	Nagpur	6,275	—	7,330	890	12	59	14,566
34.	North Bengal	1,333	—	4,346	160	—	—	5,839
35	Osmania	2,327	—	4,344	486	58	466	7,681
36	Panjab	11,659	—	23,289	1,970	50	547	37,515
37	Patna	914	—	3,523	1,626	120	19	6,202
38	Poona	3,806	—	5,564	495	10	—	9,955
39	Punjab	346	—	1,004	232	—	16	1,608
40	Rabindra Bharati	—	—	43	—	—	19	62
41	Rajasthan	2,035	—	9,015	873	74	193	12,990
42	Ranchi	2,926	—	6,358	550	81	—	9,915
43	Ravishankar	—	—	3,703	502	—	—	4,205
44	S V Vidyapeeth	796	—	1,122	194	8	—	2,120
45	S N D T Women's	1,603	—	2,083	127	15	—	3,808
46	Shivaji	3,545	—	4,217	532	—	—	8,294
47.	Saugar	4	—	7,421	998	187	47	8,657
48	Sri Venkateswara	754	—	2,102	138	15	195	3,284
49.	Udaipur	221	—	940	196	16	—	1,373
50.	Utkal	4,782	—	6,092	917	31	4	11,826
51.	V. S. Viswavidyalaya	71	62	152	129	49	125	588
52.	Vikram	—	—	7,507	1,378	—	17	8,902
53	Visva-Bharati	—	—	130	132	18	45	325
TOTAL		144,429	11,199	3,28,607	47,211	3,428	8,312	5,43,186

TABLE XVIII

*Course-wise Distribution of Colleges**Comparative figures for 1961-62 and 1965-66 for Arts, Science, Commerce and Law*

<i>Course of Study</i>	<i>Total number of colleges in 1961-62</i>	<i>Total number of colleges in 1965-66</i>			<i>Increase in the number of colleges</i>
		<i>University colleges</i>	<i>Affiliated colleges</i>	<i>Total</i>	
Arts, Science, Commerce	1,202	78	1,691	1,769	567
Law	46	11	59	70	24

TABLE XIX

*Faculty-wise Enrolment**University and Affiliated colleges in 1965-66*

ENROLMENT

<i>Faculty</i>	<i>Universities departments/ university colleges</i>	<i>Affiliated colleges</i>	<i>Intermediate Classes</i>	<i>Total</i>
Arts	83,713	5,21,782	1,01,196	7,06,641
Commerce	13,728	1,32,721	18,838	1,65,283
Law	15,346	21,972	—	37,318

TABLE XX

Number of colleges according to the strength of students

1. The number colleges (including of Intermediate colleges) in 1964-65 was 2,360. The break up figures of these into university colleges, government colleges and colleges run by private managements were as follows:

University colleges	147
Government colleges	527
Colleges run by private managements	1,686
	<hr/> 2,360

Excluding the 104 Intermediate colleges under the purview of the Board of Intermediate Education, U P. 2,056 colleges could on the basis of enrolment figures be classified as follows.

<i>Enrolment</i>	<i>Number of colleges</i>	<i>Percentage of total</i>	<i>Number of arts, science, commerce colleges</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Less than 100	320	15.6	163	11.0
Between 100—299	602	29.2	391	25.6
Between 300—499	296	14.4	243	16.0
Between 500—999	457	22.2	373	24.5
Between 1000—1999	328	16.0	297	19.5
2000 and above	53	2.6	51	3.4
Total	2 056	100.0	1,523	100

The problem of affiliated colleges was discussed by Mr P N Kirpal, Educational Adviser to the Government of India and Secretary, Union Ministry of Education. The position is as follows.

The total enrolment in affiliated colleges is about 86 per cent of that in all institutions of higher education. The bulk of this enrolment is naturally at the undergraduate stage but their contribution to postgraduate education and research is not inconsiderable. At present, three out of four students enrolled at the post-graduate stage are studying in affiliated colleges. It is true that in future the postgraduate enrolment will increase in universities rather than in colleges. All the same the colleges will be playing an important role in this sector and the Education Commission has assumed that, even in 1986, at least 20 per cent of all enrolment in post graduate education would be in the affiliated colleges. Their number is very large—there are more than 2,000 colleges in the country at present—and what is more important, this number is growing very rapidly, the average addition being about 120 colleges a year. Till about 1950, the college was essentially an urban institution. In the last few years, there has been a growing tendency to establish colleges in rural areas also and there are many places with a population of 5,000 (or even less) which now have a college. On the basis of size they present a very wide spectrum. About 16 per cent of the colleges have an enrolment of less than 100. A total of about 45 per cent of the colleges have an enrolment of 300. The proportion of colleges which have an enrolment of less than 500—which is considered, as the minimum enrolment essential for setting up an efficient and economic unit—is as high as 75 per cent. At the other end there are a few colleges—about 3 per cent, where the enrolment is more than 2,000 and some institutions in Calcutta city have as large an enrolment as of about 7 000. On the basis of management, only a small minority of these institutions are conducted by universities. A fairly large number—about 10.12 per cent—are administered by governments but the vast majority—about 85 per cent for the country as a whole—are supported by private agencies. With these differences of social background, size and management, it is hardly surprising that the standards of these institutions should show great variations.

THE STRUCTURE OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

India is a big country with a population of over fifty-one crore of people. There are 70 universities and more than 18 lakh students are receiving higher education. The degrees and courses of studies differ. The number and complexion of the units of teaching departments are also varied. Some of the universities are old and established, while others are in varying stages of development.

The residential universities have strong bases of teaching departments while the affiliating ones do not have the advantage of this strong base. Another factor which largely applies to the affiliating universities is that the affiliating colleges are far flung—some of them at long distances from the university, and many of these do not have facilities for postgraduate teaching, and even if a few affiliating colleges have provision for M A, this facility is confined to one or more subjects and in other disciplines the teaching of social sciences course comes to an end with the graduate stage.

Let us clarify the point by a specific example. The Rajasthan University provides for courses for study in English literature, Sanskrit, Persian, Urdu, mathematics, philosophy, economics, history, political science, geography, Indian music, drawing and painting, home science, sociology and public administration for B A and in English literature, Sanskrit, Persian, Urdu, Hindi, philosophy, history, sociology, political science and economics for B A (hons) and for English literature, Arabic, Persian, Sanskrit, Hindi, Urdu, philosophy, economics, history, political science, geography, sociology, mathematics, public administration and social work for M A examination.

But the university's teaching departments are dispersed as follows—

Department of Botany (Jaipur), Chemistry (Jaipur), Economics and Public Administration (Jaipur), English (Jaipur), French, language (Jaipur), Geology (Jaipur), German language (Jaipur), Hindi (Jaipur), History (Jaipur). Similarly departments of library science, mathematics, philosophy, physics, Russian language, Sanskrit, sociology, statistics, zoology and University law colleges are at Jaipur.

Now there are 57 affiliated colleges of arts, science and commerce. But teaching faculty in the subjects, for which the teaching departments are located in and function at Jaipur, can be had only at Jaipur in these disciplines and the other 56 colleges are confined to teaching up to and for B A examination only.

Out of the 57 colleges only the (1) Birla College of Arts at Pilani, (2) Birla College of Science and Commerce at Pilani, (3) Dayanand College, Ajmer, (4) Dungee College at Bikaner, (5) Government M A College, Udaipur, (6) S D Government College Beawar and (7) Udaipur School of Social Work provide for education for the M A degree. The Udaipur School of Social Work provides only for M A in social work, the other colleges (outside Jaipur) the fifty ($57-7=50$) colleges situated in towns other than Jaipur confine themselves to B A degree alone.

Even colleges (outside Jaipur) providing for M A do not provide for teaching in all the subjects, included in the university syllabus. Even in a popular subject like economics—which is taught in M A. at Jaipur, the university of Rajasthan Ordinances and Regulations provide for various optional papers. But is there a provision for teaching for all these optional papers even at Jaipur—the seat of the university? No.

The heads of the departments provide for various optional papers to cover the subject. But in practice, if an optional group is allowed this year, another optional group is allowed next year. Sometimes, the same optional group continues from year to year, because it is easier for teachers to continue teaching the same papers year after year, instead of preparing lectures for fresh papers. In the Rajasthan University M A in economics provides for 33 papers. It would require a very heavy staff and the whole proposition would become too expensive, if instructions were provided for all the groups covering 33 papers.

What we have stated in respect of Rajasthan or economics is not peculiar to this university or this subject only. It applies *mutatis mutandis* to all the affiliating universities and all the subjects. At the residential universities, there are full facilities for teaching subjects for the M A degree but there too, there is not simultaneous provision for all the optional groups of papers for reasons already stated above.

A full idea about teaching for the various degrees can be had only by perusing the degrees and a brief note is being given to acquaint the readers with an outline of the degrees comprising social science subjects. In preparing the note the following points have been kept in view:

1. If a university provides degrees in natural biological or other sciences or in subjects other than those falling in the social sciences the same have not been included here, simply for the reason that the subjects we are dealing with postulate the teaching of social sciences. It should not be inferred, therefore, that the university confers only these degrees (as given in subsequent paragraphs) and none other. Chapter X details the various faculties in the different universities. Now, for example, the Lucknow university confers medical degrees or degrees like B Sc or M Sc. but we have omitted M B B S.

or M D or B Sc or M Sc from our list here and confined entry only to degrees pertaining to social science subjects

- 2 The usual departments like those of economics, political science, law etc have not been mentioned, because they are common features. But departments of social work or public administration or labour welfare which fall in the province of social sciences and have been late entrants in the field of subjects taught have been (where there are separate departments for these) deemed to be worthy of mention

Now are being given below the degrees (for which teaching and examinations are provided) university-wise in alphabetical order

Agra Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M S W, M Com, LL M, Ph D, (arts, com) D Litt (arts, com) LL D The university runs two institutions where postgraduate teaching and research work are done. One of the institutions is the Institute of Social Sciences which was started in 1956 and provides for M A in sociology, M S W M A in social work and M Sc in statistics. The university had 127 affiliated colleges till 1962-63, when due to the establishment of new universities such as at Meerut 30 colleges out of 127 were affiliated to these new universities. It runs a two year degree course in arts and science after intermediate or equivalent examination

Aligarh Muslim University Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M Com, LL M, Ph D, D Litt, LL D Diploma in Foreign Affairs General education has been introduced as part of the syllabus of the three year degree course. A building of the General Education Centre has been constructed with the Ford Foundation grant of Rs 22 lakh. About 20 books have been published for general education reading

Allahabad Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M Com, D Phil, D Litt, LL D Women students can also offer B A (Home Arts), B Sc (Home Sc), B Sc (Home Eco). There is also certificate course in social service and village uplift. There are 5 colleges, 3 out of which are for arts, commerce and science subjects. The departments of economics and commerce have museums. The university provides for a two year degree course after intermediate examination

Andhra Degrees B A, B A (Hons) B Com B Com (Hons) M A (Hons) M D (social work) M A (Rural study) M Com M Sc (Stats) M L D L Ph D, Diploma in Coop and Rural Dev

There are no separate teaching departments. All teaching is done in the 5 constituent colleges. Besides there are 52 affiliated colleges. There is provision for three year degree course after pre university examination

* The number of colleges for various universities as given herein may differ from those given in Chapter X. The particulars in Chapter XI are from sources published a few years back

Andhra Pradesh Agricultural This is primarily an agricultural university

Annamalai Degrees B A , B Com , M A , M Com , Ph D D Litt The university being residential, there are no affiliated colleges There are 23 teaching departments (arts science) history and politics together constitute one department There are separate departments for sociology, statistics, economics etc

Banaras Hindu Degrees B A , B Com , LL B , M A , M Com , LL M , Ph D , D Litt Certificate in State Methods There are 14 constituent and 4 affiliated colleges Of the 14 constituent colleges, 5 are arts, science and commerce colleges, women's colleges provide teaching for P U C (Sc) B A & B Sc to women students The Central Hindu College is the main teaching centre for arts and social science subjects The university has three year degree course after P U C

Bangalore Same degrees as in Mysore university There are 24 constituent colleges This university came into being in 1964

Baroda (Maharaja Sayaji Rao University) Degrees B A , B Com , B Sc (Home) LL B , M A , M Sc (Home) M Com M S W Diploma in Cooperation, Diploma in Banking There are 10 faculties in the university and 5 constituent colleges (1 for P U C teaching arts, science and commerce, others for Musicipolytechnic etc) The university has three year degree course The psychological guidance centre guides the students in regard to their psychological problems and suitability for different vocations

Bhagalpur Degrees B A , B A (Hons) , B Com , B Com (Hons) , B L , M A , M Com There are separate teaching departments for labour and social welfare , rural economics sociology statistics There are 33 affiliated colleges providing teaching for B A /B Sc /B Com /level only The T N B college Bhagalpur is a law college There is three year degree course for B A after P U C /Higher Secondary examination

Bihar Degrees B A , B A (Hons) , B Com , B Com (Hons) , M A , M L (same as LL M) , Ph D , D Litt There are 3 constituent and 37 affiliated colleges The university provides facilities for postgraduate teaching and research facilities in all the major disciplines The Mithila Institute, Darbhanga and Vaishali Institute, Muzaffarpur, have been recognized to provide research facilities There is three year degree course for B A

Bombay Degrees B A (Genl) B A (Special), B Com , LL B , M A M Com , LL M Ph D , D Litt LL D Diploma in Business Management, Diploma in Labour Welfare, Diploma in Industrial Management, Intermediate in arts science commerce is followed by a two year degree course for B A There are separate departments for applied psychology, politics civics, statistics The department of economics teaches, for M A

degree in economics and M Sc for agricultural economics and also for Ph D D Litt and Diplomas in Business/Industrial Management There are 46 constituent colleges out of which 28 are arts, science and commerce colleges and 4 law colleges Besides these 14 institutions are recognized as postgraduate institutions where certain members of the staff in these research institutes are recognized as postgraduate teachers of the university Till recently Tata Institute of Social Sciences was the Institute recognized for research work leading to Ph D Now it has been recognized as a separate university Extended part-time course ($1\frac{1}{2}$ times of that for full time students) exists for arts subjects

Burdwan Degrees B A, B A (Hons), B Com, M A The university has no separate teaching departments Postgraduate teaching is conducted in the university's post graduate colleges of arts and science Burdwan There is one university college and 35 affiliated colleges out of which 32 are for arts, science and commerce All these conduct teaching for P U C and B A, B Sc or B Com degrees The university has adopted three-year degree course after P U C or Higher Secondary examination

Calcutta Degrees B A, B A (Hons), B Com, B Com (Hons), LL B, B Sc (Home science), M A, M Com LL M, D Litt, D Phil, LL D, Diploma in Labour Welfare, Diploma in Business Management, Diploma in Guidance and Counselling The postgraduate teaching departments function in university colleges There are separate departments for Mental and Moral Philosophy There is a department of anthropology at the university college of science There are separate university colleges for commerce and law There are 7 constituent university colleges and 116 constituent colleges There is three year degree course for B A, B Sc, B Com (for those who have passed P U C) In 1957, when the university celebrated its centenary, two additional posts—of centenary professors—one for public administration in the department of political science and international relations and the other in the department of history were created A special post of Shyama Prasad Mukerjee Professor of Human Relations was created

Delhi Degrees B A, B A (Hons) B Com, LL B, M A M Com, LL M, Ph D, LL D, Diploma in Business Management Diploma in Industrial Management Certificate of Proficiency in Law Besides the usual teaching departments the university has a department of African Studies (M A Ph D) anthropology (M A M Sc, Ph D) The department of economics and commerce has two courses for M A, one for economics the other for economic statistics¹, M A in commerce, Ph D and Diploma in Economic Administration There are also departments

¹The course for economic statistics has been now discontinued

of human geography, sociology, social work etc. There 4 university colleges, special mention may be made of (i) Delhi School of Social Work and (ii) Institute of postgraduate studies (evening course). Besides there are 30 (24 for arts, science and commerce) affiliated colleges. Special mention may be made of (i) Dayal Singh College (evening course), (ii) Delhi College (evening course), (iii) The Institute of Economic Growth, founded in 1961. It specializes in research in social sciences and is one of the most advanced centres for research. It has a separate building in the university campus and has a very rich separate library, (iv) P G D A V College (evening course).

The university was the first to introduce 3-year degree course. The university has since 1962 started correspondence courses for arts subjects. But instead of usual three year degree course for B A, the correspondence course takes four years.

Gauhati Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M Com, Ph D, P U C in arts, I Com. The university has separate departments for anthropology, geography, statistics. There is only one constituent college—university law college. Besides there are 43 affiliated colleges (out of these 39 are for arts, science and commerce). The department of anthropology maintains a museum. Three year degree course is provided for B A.

Dibrugarh Same degrees as in Gauhati. This university was established only two years back. It has 22 constituent and affiliated colleges.

Garaklipur Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M Com, Ph D, D Litt. There are separate departments for psychology, sociology, geography. The M P University College is the constituent college. Besides there are 30 affiliated colleges (29 for arts, science and commerce). The university conducts teaching for 2 years degree course after Intermediate.

Gujarat Degrees B A, LL B, M A, M Com, LL M, Ph D, D Litt, Diploma in Labour Laws and Practice, Diploma in Taxation Laws and Practice, Diploma in Labour Welfare (the university has with effect from 1957 introduced M A in Labour Welfare), Intermediate in arts, commerce, P U C (arts, commerce). The university has separate departments as follows: University* School of Philosophy and Psychology, (since 1957). It provides for M A and Ph D degrees. University School of Social Sciences provides for M A and Ph D. It has the departments of economics, sociology, politics, statistics and labour welfare. There are 90 affiliated colleges (out of which 67 are for arts, science and commerce and 8 law colleges). Besides there are 7 recognized institutes. Three year degree course has been introduced since 1963.

*The names of University Schools for disciplines other than those of social sciences have not been given here.

Indore Founded in 1964 It has the usual B A , B Com , M A , B Com , M Com , LL B , LL M , Ph D , D Litt , degrees There are 17 colleges

Jabalpur Degrees B A , B Com , LL B M A , M A , (App Psy) M Com , LL M , Ph D D Litt , LL D , Diploma in Economic Planning There are separate departments of postgraduate studies and research, in law, political science and public administration, sociology, etc There are 20 affiliated colleges (out of which 11 are for arts, science and commerce and 2 for law) It has three year degree course

Jadavpur Degrees B A (Hons), M A , Ph D , D Litt , Departments of economics philosophy, political science, international relations are located in the University College of Arts and Science, Jadavpur There are only two constituent colleges one for arts and science subjects and the other for engineering and technology There is three year course for B A (Hons)

Jammu & Kashmir Degrees B A B A (Hons), B Com , M A There are 33 affiliated colleges out of which 17 are for arts, science and commerce Three year course was introduced in 1961 62 Education upto postgraduate studies (arts, science education) is free in the university teaching departments and government colleges

Jawahar Lal Krishi Vidyalyaya It is primarily an agricultural university.

Jyoti University Degrees B A , B Com , LL B , M A , M Com , LL M , Ph D , D Litt There are 27 constituent and affiliated colleges

Jodhpur Degrees B A , B Com , LL B , M A , M Com There are separate teaching departments for commerce, sociology, psychology, home science, etc There are two constituent colleges one is for women, the other is teacher's college All subjects are taught directly at the university There is three year degree course for B A

Kalyani Degrees B A (Hons), M A There are separate departments for agricultural economics (since 1963), teaching for B Sc (Ag) Hons , economics (since 1961), teaching for B A (Hons) and M A , sociology (since 1962), teaching for B A (Hons) and M A , statistics (since 1961), preparing for B Sc (Hons), M Sc (Hons) There are four constituent colleges (one out of these is for arts subjects) This university is primarily an agricultural university

Kameshwar Singh Darbhanga Sanskrit Vishwavidyalaya Degrees Shastri, Acharya, Mahopadhyaya, Mahamahopadhyaya The subjects include economics, politics, civics, Dharmashastra (including law) It is primarily a Sanskrit university

Kanpur Has come into being only last year Same degree as at
Agra

Karnatak Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M Com, LL M Ph.D., Diploma in Public Administration The university has separate departments for statistics and geography (M Sc and Ph D). In 1959, it started a separate department of social anthropology and social welfare There are 39 constituent colleges (out of which 26 are for arts, science and commerce) There is three year degree course

Kerala Degrees B A, B Com, M A, M Litt, M Com, M Sc (Ag), B L, M L, (same as LL B and LL M) M S W (Master of Social Work), Ph D, D Litt, LL D Diploma in Social Science, P.U C (arts, science and commerce) The university has separate departments for psychology (since 1957), statistics There are 89 affiliated colleges (out of which 49 are for arts, science and commerce) There is three-year degree course since 1957-58 The university has acquired 235 acres of land at Koriyavattom, 8 miles away from the city for university campus

Kurukshetra Degrees B A, B A (Hons), Ph D, P U C (arts and science) There are 3 constituent colleges From its nucleus of a Sanskrit department, the university has developed into a multi faculty institution with teaching facilities in arts, languages, science, social sciences, Indian studies and education It has adopted a three year degree course

Lucknow. Degrees B A, B A (Hons), B Com, LL B M A, M Com, LL M, M S W (Master of Social Work) Ph D, D Litt, LL D, Diploma in Public Administration, Diploma in Foreign Affairs and Diplomacy The University has separate teaching departments for business administration (started in 1956), providing instructions leading to B Com, M Com, Ph D degrees, departments of commerce, philosophy and psychology (since 1958), department of sociology and social work (since 1956), statistics (since 1956) It has 3 constituent colleges and 13 associated colleges for arts, science, commerce The J K Institute of Sociology and Human Relations specializes in teaching, leading to M S W (Master in Social Work) The university has two year degree course after Intermediate

Madras Degrees B A, B A (Hons), B Sc (Home science), B Sc (Ag), B Ccm (Hons), B L, M A, M L, M A (Soc Work), M Sc (Ag), M Ccm, M Sc (Home Science), Ph D D Litt LL D Diploma in Anthropology Diploma in Economics, Diploma in Social Science, Diploma in Business Management Diploma in Statistics The university has separate teaching departments of anthropology, business management, geography, legal studies (for M L same as LL M)

politics and public administration, psychology, statistics. The number of constituent, affiliated and oriental colleges and approved institutions is 118 (out of which 67 are for arts science and commerce). There is three year degree course. For providing postgraduate teaching and research the university has separate departments for some of the subjects. It is proposed to develop such centres in Tiruchirapalli, Coimbatore and Tinnevely.—Palayamcottah

Madurai It has come into being only in 1965. It has the same teaching departments and degrees as provided at the Madras University. It specialised in research in certain subjects, even when the colleges now university colleges of Madurai, were affiliated to the Madras University. Besides, there are the usual degrees of B A, B Com (same as LL B), M L (same as LL M), Ph D, D Litt. There are 50 constituent and affiliated colleges. There is three year degree course.

Magadha Degrees B A, B Com, M A, P U C (arts, science, commerce). The university has a separate teaching department for geography and provides for M Sc in geography. There are 29 university colleges out of which 28 are for arts, science and commerce and provide teaching facilities for P U C (pre university course), B A, B Sc, and B Com. Postgraduate teaching facilities are available at the university at Bodhgaya. There is three year degree course.

Marathwada Degrees B A, B Com, M A, M Sc (Ag), LL M, M Com, Ph D, P U C. There are 30 affiliated colleges (out of which 21 are for arts, science and commerce). There is three year degree course.

Meerut Same degrees as at Agra. This is a newly started university.

Mysore Degrees B A, B Com, B Sc (Ag), B L, (same as LL B), Ph D, D Litt, LL D, P U C (pre university course). The university has separate teaching departments for geography, psychology, sociology. There are 63 constituent colleges (out of which 38 are for arts, science and commerce). It has three year degree course. Facilities for postgraduate studies and research are provided in the university teaching departments at Manasgangotri, Mysore, Maharaja's College Mysore, Central College, Bangalore.

Nagpur Degrees B A, B Sc, (Home science), B Com, LL B, M A, M Sc (Ag), M Com, LL M, Ph D, D Litt, LL D, Diploma in Cooperation, Diploma in Local self government, Certificate in Social Work, P U C (arts, science, commerce). The university has teaching departments for postgraduate teaching in humanities (economics, English, Hindi, history, Marathi, pali philosophy prakrit and Sanskrit), since 1958,

department of public administration and local self government distinct from department of political science. It has 3 constituent colleges and 61 affiliated colleges (out of which 45 are for arts, science and commerce), provision for research exists in all the subjects in the teaching departments. There is three year degree course.

North Bengal Degrees B A, B A (Hons), M A, M Com, Pre university course (arts, science, commerce). There are two constituent colleges and 14 affiliated colleges (out of which 11 are for arts, science and commerce). There is three year degree course. This university specializes in the study of geography, geology and climatology of North Bengal.

Orissa University of Agriculture and Technology There is a department of agricultural economics.

Osmania Degrees B A, B Sc (Ag), B Sc (Home science), LL B, M A, M Com, Ph D, P U C (arts, science, commerce), Diploma in Public Administration. There are separate departments for political science, public administration, sociology. There are 18 constituent and 49 affiliated colleges out of which 22 are for arts, science and commerce. There is three year degree course.

Panjab Degrees B A, B Com, B Sc (Home science), LL B, M A, M Sc (Home science), LL M, Ph D, D Litt, Certificate course in statistics economics (post M A), industrial relations and labour welfare (post M A), agricultural economics (post M A), agricultural marketing, P U C (arts, science commerce). The university teaching departments includes those for anthropology (since 1960) leading to M Sc., Ph D, D Litt degrees, geography (M A, Ph D, D Litt), public administration (since 1960), sociology (since 1960). There are 139 university colleges. The university has introduced the three-year degree course. With general education as a compulsory non examinational subject.

Patna Degrees B A, B A (Hons), B Com, B L, B L (Hons), M A, M Com, M L, Ph D, D Litt, LL D, Diploma in International Relations. The university has separate departments for applied economics (M Com), economics (M A), psychology (M A), sociology (M A), statistics (M A, M Sc), labour and social welfare (M A), psychology (M A, M Sc), Institute of Psychological Research (Ph D), Institute of Public Administration (since 1954) which specializes in research on special problems. There are 10 university colleges out of which 5 are for arts science and commerce and 1 for law. There is three year degree course.

Poona Degrees B A, B A (External), B Sc (Ag), B Com, B Com (External), LL B, M A, M A (External), LL M, LL M (External), M Com, M Com (External), Ph D, D Litt, LL D. There are separate teaching departments for experimental

psychology (M A , Ph D), mathematics and statistics (M A (Hons), Ph D , politics and public administration (M A , Ph D) There are 14 constituent and 22 affiliated colleges (out of which 19 are for arts science and commerce) Besides, there are 5 recognized institutes Mention may be made of one of these, viz , Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics There is three year degree course

Punjab Agricultural University This is an agricultural university

Punjab Degrees B A , B A (Hons), M A P U C There are 9 affiliated colleges out of which 5 are for arts, science and commerce There is a separate department for economics There is three year degree course

Rabindra Bharati This is mainly for fine arts, dance, drama music and Tagore literature

Rajasthan Degrees B A , B A (Hons) B Com , B Com (Hons), LL B , M A M A (Soc Work), Diplomas in labour, law, and commerce Certificate courses in labour law, P U C arts, science and commerce There are separate teaching departments for economics and public administration, sociology, statistics There are 4 university colleges and 67 affiliated colleges (out of which 57 are for arts, science and commerce) There is 3 year degree course

Ranchi Degrees B A , B A (Hons), B Com (Hons), M A , M Com , P U C There are separate departments for anthropology, geography, psychology etc, There are 26 university colleges (out of which 17 are for arts, science and commerce), There is three year degree course

Roorkee This is an engineering university

Ravi Shankar There are 41 constituent and affiliated colleges, same degrees and subjects as at Saugor

Sardar Vallabh Bhai Vidyapeeth Degrees B A , B Com , M A , M Com , Ph D , P U C (arts science, commerce) There are 9 constituent and affiliated colleges out of which 5 are for arts, science and commerce There is three year degree course

Saugor Degrees B A , B A (Hons), B Com , LL B , M A , LL M Ph D D Litt There are separate teaching departments for anthropology, criminology and forensic science (since 1959) leading to B A , B Sc degrees, geography (B A , B Sc , M A M Sc , Ph D D Litt) psychology (since 1963) There are 78 affiliated colleges, out of which 52 are for arts, science and commerce There is three year degree course since 1956-57

Saurashtra Same degrees and teaching departments as at Gujarat University It came into being only last year

Shivaji Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, LL M, M Com, LL M Ph D, There are 33 affiliated colleges out of which 25 are for arts, science and commerce and 1 for law, and one recognized institution

S V D T Women's Degrees B A, B Sc (Home science), B Sc (Nursing), M A, M Sc (Home science, child development), Ph D This university has territorial jurisdiction over the whole of India This is a women's university All the colleges affiliated to it are for women

Shri Venkateshwar Degrees B A (Genl), B A (Spl), B Com, M A, Ph D D Litt, LL D There are two university colleges and 23 affiliated colleges There is three year degree course The university examination is held at the end of three years

South Gujarat This university was established only last year, same degrees and teaching departments as at Gujarat University

University of Agricultural Sciences, Hebbel This is an agricultural university

Utkal Degrees B A, B A (Hons) B Com, LL B, M A, LL M, Ph D, D, Litt, Diploma in Statistics, P U C (arts, science commerce), Matric There are separate teaching departments for anthropology (since 1958), applied economics, (since 1963) commerce (since 1962) psychology (since 1958), rural economics and sociology (for research only, since 1957), statistics (since 1958) for M A, and M Sc degrees There are 6 university colleges and 51 affiliated colleges (out of which 43 are for arts, science and commerce) There is three year degree course

Uttar Pradesh Agricultural This is an agricultural university

Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishwavidyalaya The medium of instruction is Sanskrit and Hindi All the examinations lead to title examinations in Sanskrit such as Shastri, Acharya, etc

Vikram Degrees B A, B Com, LL B, M A, M Com, Ph D, D Litt There are university schools of study in mathematics and statistics, since 1960 (M Sc) There are 26 constituent and 45 affiliated colleges (out of these 51 are for arts, science and commerce) There is 3 year degree course

Vishva Bharati Degrees B A (Hons), M A Ph D, D Litt, economics politics and geography are among the subjects taught The teaching in this university has more emphasis on culture fine arts and crafts, music—vocal and instrumental and allied subjects

Institutions deemed to be Universities under Section 3 of the U G C, Act, 1956

Gujarat Vidyapeeth Degrees Samaja Vidya Visharad (Bachelor of Social Sciences), Samaja Vidya Parangat (Master in Social

Sciences), Certificate in Tribal Research There are 3 constituent colleges This vidyapeeth is also known as Gujarat National University Regular M A courses in Rural economics and Social Anthropology have been started from 1965

Gurukul Kangri Vishwa Vidyalya Degrees Alankar (M A), M A, Vidya Martanda (Research degree) Psychology is one of the subjects taught There are 5 constituent colleges

Indian School of International Studies Degree Ph D The school provides research facilities in international fields, international law There are 11 teaching departments (i) East Asia, (ii) South Asia, (iii) South East Asia, (iv) West Asia, (v) Central Asia (vi) American history and institutions, (vii) common history and institutions, (viii) international economics, (ix) international politics and organization, (x) international law, (xi) social history and institutions There are about 100 research scholars Research for a Ph D degree takes 3 years

Jamia Milia Islamia There is teaching in humanities, science and education There are three colleges, one of these prepares for B A, and M A The total number of students in the institution is about 300

Kashi Vidyapeeth Degrees M A S (Master of Applied Sociology) M A Besides there are oriental titles There are two colleges, one preparing for M A in economics and the other for M A in sociology and M A in applied sociology The total number of students is less than 1 000 The medium of instruction is Hindi

Indian Statistical Institute Degrees B. Com, Stat, M Stat, Ph D, D Sc It has only one faculty — statistics Although it is a teaching and residential institute, private candidates are allowed to appear at the following professional examination (i) Statistical Field Survey, Junior Certificate, (ii) Statistics Field Survey Senior Certificate, (iii) Statistical Field Survey Diploma, (iv) Computer's Certificate, (v) Punched Card Machine Tabulator's Senior Certificate and (vi) Statistician's Diploma

Tata Institute of Social Sciences This is the only institute (of the status of a university) specializing in social sciences There is postgraduate diploma course in social-service administration The government of India has recognized in consultation with the Union Public Service Commission, the postgraduate diploma in social service administration as an alternative qualification for appointment to posts under the Government for which a Master's degree in social work is prescribed as the requisite educational qualification There are following departments (i) criminology and correctional administration (ii) family and child welfare, (iii) labour welfare and industrial relations, (iv) medical and psychiatric social work, (v) rural welfare, (vi) tribal welfare and (vii) urban community development

There are also (i) One-year certificate programme in social research, (ii) one-term programme for organization of urban community welfare centres

The institute has also commenced courses for M A in social work and M A in personnel management and labour welfare

The institute has also worked out a detailed scheme for the introduction of a Ph D programme in social work and in social sciences, which is being implemented shortly

The names of universities and the years in which they introduced three year degree courses are given below

TABLE I

Universities which have introduced the Three-Year Degree Course till 1964-65

<i>S No</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Year of Introduction of Three year Degree Course</i>
1	Aligarh	1958-59
2	Andhra	1958-59
3	Annamalai	1958-59
4	Banaras	1960-61
5	Baroda	1957-58
6	Bhagalpur	1960-61
7	Bihar	1960-61
8	Burdwan	1960-61
9	Calcutta	1960-61
10	Delhi	1943-44
11	Gauhati	1962-63
12	Gujarat	1963-64
13	Jabalpur	1960-61
14	Jadavpur	1956-57
15	Jammu & Kashmir	1961-62
16	Jodhpur	1959-60*
17	Kalyani	1962-63
18	Karnatak	1958-59
19	Kerala	1957-58
20	Kurukshetra	1961-62
21	Madras	1957-58
22	Magadh	1960-61 ¹
23	Marathwada	1957-58
24	Mysore	1958-59
25	Nagpur	1958-59

*For Arts faculty For Science faculty it was introduced in 1961-62

<i>S No</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Year of Introduction of Three year Degree Course</i>
26	North Bengal	1960 61*
27	Osmania	1957 58
28	Panjab	1961 62
29	Panjabi	1961 62*
30	Patna	1960 61
31	Poona	1959 60
32	Rajasthan	1958-59
33	Ranchi	1960 61
34	S V Vidyapeeth	1958 59
35	Saugor	1956-57
36	Shivaji	1959 60*
37	S N D T Women s	1959 60
38	Shri Venkateshwar	1958 59
39	Utkal	1960 61
40	Vikram	1959 60
41	Vishwa Bharati	1951-55
42	Bangalore	1958-59*
43	Indore	1958 59*
44	Jivaji	1959 60*
45	Ravishankar	1956-57*

We still have the two types of universities, (i) residential and (ii) affiliating. The steps of higher education still continue to be (i) High School (matriculation)/intermediate, B A (Two year course) and M A or (ii) High School (matriculation)/P U C B A (Three years course), and M A. or (iii) Higher Secondary Examination B A (Three year course) and M A.

In the preceding pages information regarding switching on to three year degree course has been provided—where the university has so done. As chapter X would show, there are still thirteen Boards of examination. Some States—notably some part of Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra still continue with the old pattern of Intermediate.

When the old Intermediate course was attacked, and High Schools upgraded to Higher and Secondary standard and the matriculation examination became out of fashion giving place to Higher and Secondary examination and subsequent three year course of graduation, our educationists were so enthusiastic about the whole scheme that they thought they had found a panacea for all educational ills of the country.

*The Universities marked with an asterisk have been formed later but the constituent or affiliated colleges under them had three year courses since the year specified.

In his evidence before the Education Commission (1964-66) the hon'ble Shri Morarji Desai pleaded for autonomy of University education. He stated "in the field of University Education maximum freedom and autonomy should be allowed to the universities and the government should not interfere in their normal working. Each university should be encouraged in maintaining its distinct character and its past traditions. There should be diversity even in the composition of university bodies. The contents of the university courses need radical change and unless they are related to some kind of practical work by the students, we will not be able to achieve much."

But in actual practice the policy is dictated by the Ministers and the members of Parliament. In April, 1967 Mr. Ram Prakash, U.P.'s Minister for Education, stated that annual High School and Intermediate Examinations were not necessary. Mr. Prakash told press reporters at Lucknow that no such system of examinations existed in foreign countries. He said the present pattern of examinations would have to be changed, particularly in view of the various problems like use of unfair means by students and stabbing of invigilators. He said he would take steps to remove the shortcomings in the State's examinations system.

Revival of 10-year School System Urged

The M.P.'s committee on education at New Delhi recommended on 25th April, 1967 a return to the old 10-year high school system in all States. This will mean scrapping of the system in vogue in some States under which a student takes 11 to 12 years to complete his schooling. The other recommendations were as follows:

The curriculum of the 10 year school should broadly cover the same course that is now being covered by various high school and higher secondary courses in different States. The standard attained at the end of this course should be uniform in all States.

High school should be followed by a two year "higher secondary" stage (it is known as the Intermediate college stage in some States). This course could be instituted either in selected secondary schools or in degree colleges, but its control should vest in a single authority for the whole State. This could either be a sub board of the Board of School Education as recommended by the Education Commission or a separate board. Universities should be adequately represented on this board.

Half the students in the "higher secondary" stage should be enrolled in vocational courses of one to three years. This would make education more purposeful and relieve the present heavy strain on the system of general college education.

NATIONAL POLICY

The recommendation conforms broadly to the Education Commission's report. The committee was expected to produce an accepted programme of action and the general outline of a national policy for education to be placed before the Education Minister's conference to be inaugurated by the Prime Minister.

Twenty-eight of the 29 members of the committee who included leading members of the various political parties attended the discussions. Dr. Triguna Sen, Union Education Minister, presided.

For the universities the committee has recommended a degree course of two years and an honours course of three years. The postgraduate course should be of two years after the honours course and of three years after the ordinary degree (pass course).

There should be no rigid or uniform division of the high school course into primary and secondary stages. This should be flexible and left to the States to decide. The committee also discussed the question of the teachers' status and salary on the basis of the Education Commission's recommendations. It will return to it later after discussing the resources available for education. The national policy on education was expected to be announced on 15th August 1967 but it has been deferred to November 1967.

The national policy on education has not been announced till the middle of November, 1967, when these lines are being printed. One of the major stumbling blocks in the path of clear policy is the question of the medium of instruction and the official language of the country. According to *Statesman* dated November, 13, 1967, the Union Cabinet on 12th November, 1967, "decided to go ahead with the plan to move the amendment of the language law to codify Mr. Nehru's assurances on the continued use of English as an associate official language as long as the non-Hindi people want it".

Some information in regard to number of university departments/affiliated colleges has been provided in Chapter X. Some more tables are being provided in this chapter to provide additional information.

Table II

University wise distribution of colleges—university colleges and affiliated colleges

Table III

Enrolments in university departments/affiliated colleges

TABLE II
*University-wise distribution of colleges
 According to Type of Management
 1964-65*

S. No.	University	University colleges	Affiliated colleges	Total
1.	Agra	2	135	137
2.	Aligarh	1	—	1
3.	Allahabad	—	6	6
4.	Andhra	5	53	58
5.	Banaras	14	5	19
6.	Bangalore	1	31	32
7.	Baroda	4	1	5
8.	Bhagalpur	3	40	43
9.	Bihar	3	33	41
10.	Bombay	—	56	56
11.	Burdwan	—	39	39
12.	Calcutta	6	151	157
13.	Delhi	4	35	39
14.	Gauhati	1	98	99
15.	Gorakhpur	—	34	34
16.	Gujarat	—	115	115
17.	Indore	—	15	15
18.	Jabalpur	—	20	20
19.	Jadavpur	—	1	1
20.	Jammu & Kashmir	—	34	34
21.	Jiwaji	—	28	28
22.	Jodhpur	—	1	1
23.	Karnatak	4	43	47
24.	Kerala	—	123	123
25.	Kurukshetra	—	2	2
26.	Lucknow	1	17	18
27.	Madras	1	136	137
28.	Magadh	2	31	33
29.	Marathwada	—	28	28
30.	Mysore	2	53	55
31.	Nagpur	3	71	74
32.	North Bengal	—	18	18
33.	Osmania	14	35	49
34.	Punjab	5	138	143
35.	Patna	10	—	10
36.	Poona	—	40	40
37.	Punjabi	—	9	9
38.	Rajasthan	4	62	66
39.	Ranchi	4	30	34
40.	Ravishankar	—	40	40
41.	S V Vidyapeeth	1	12	13
42.	Saugor	—	58	58
43.	S N D T Women's	7	9	16
44.	Shivaji	—	42	42
45.	Shri Venkateshwar	2	22	24
46.	Udaipur	5	6	11
47.	Utkal	6	62	68
48.	Vikram	1	34	35
49.	Vishwa-Bharati	8	—	8

TABLE III
Enrolment According to Stage
1964-65

S No.	Stage	Enrolment in 1963-64 in university departments and affiliated colleges	Percentage of total enrolment	Enrolment in 1964-65 university departments	Affiliate colleges	Total	Percent- age in affiliated colleges	Percentage of enrolment in university departments and colleges to total enrol- ment in 1964-65	Increase of total enrol- ment in 1964-65 to that in 1963-64 1963-64=100
1.	P.U.C.	2,95,424	21.3	1,93,118	3,01,240	3,20,566	94.0	21.0	109
2.	Intermediate	2,33,124	16.9	552	33,843	34,395	98.4	16.0	105
3.	Graduate	7,39,607	53.4	1,08,814	7,26,990	8,35,804	07.0	54.7	113
4.	Postgraduate	76,685	5.5	44,560	39,641	84,201	47.1	5.5	110
5.	Research	5,895	0.4	6,134	970	7,104	13.7	0.5	121
6.	Dip/certificate	19,923	1.5	10,080	13,088	23,168	56.5	1.5	116
7.	Pre-professional	14,039	1.0	1,031	11,958	12,989	92.1	0.8	93
	Total	13,84,697	100.0	1,90,469	11,27,738	13,18,227	05.5*	100.0	110*

* Average.

CHAPTER XII

ADMISSIONS

India is a vast country with over fifty crore of people. The number of universities has increased due to re-organisation of States and due to stupendous increase in higher education. There is great thirst for knowledge, the rush of candidates wishing to enlist themselves as scholars for higher studies is so great that the universities have raised barricades after barricades—making them higher and higher, to check the onrush of fresh admissions. They are finding it simply impossible to cope with the problem of numbers. Our economy has become so poor and disorganized—the factors are too well-known to need enumeration or adumbration—that food has had to be rationed and the rationing is not confined to cereals and sugar alone. The admission to higher courses of study has also been rationed. A ceiling has had to be put on admissions. The scale of eligibility for admission is being constantly raised, shutting out the masses. Higher education is becoming day by day not only a rationed commodity but a rarer and rarer one, for the intellectually poor and the humble. The test is the marks obtained in the immediately preceding examination. Those who could afford to live well and study well, purchase books and notes, or engage tutors and extra-teaching facilities, or had the advantage of public school education get through the examinations with higher marks, but others, who have to face the rigours of poverty and have none of the advantages cited above, if they manage to get through the examinations do not obtain (barring those who are extra bright students) a good division and naturally find that the portals of higher education are closed to them. Many an argument is found, even by senior educationists to formulate, foster and further this policy of restricting admissions. They harp on their pet theory that higher education would not be worthwhile for this intellectually poor and humble community of students, firstly because results in their last examinations label them as backward and as such they would not be brilliant in the career of higher study, and as such, the return to the nation or the country, by investing in their higher education (in the form of teaching them) would not pay as much dividend as stocks of brilliant students. Then, another argument of condescending sympathy is that these students would not, due to their unequal performances at higher examinations get suitable employment and their state of unemployment would be a liability to themselves and a dead weight to the nation. Thus, has education become a mere physical commodity which should be produced according to its marketability.

Where are the words or the principle behind them when Sir Asutosh Mukerjee, that great lion of Bengal, who was a credit to education and a glory to India roared out that he wanted

Bengal to be flooded with graduates. Or may we refer to the words of President Radhakrishnan, when addressing the convocation of the Lucknow University in 1931

He said that if thousands and thousands of graduates were thrown into a society it would raise the intellectual and the cultural level and benefits from this advanced state would flow to the community

Great minds have laid the principles once for all. They are not parochial but universal in their application. They can not be outworn by time or ousted due to exigencies. The basic tenets of intellectual approach remain true at all times and in all circumstances. The approach to the intellectual equipment of man requires thinking on higher plane and should not be weighed in the scales of gross materialism alone. The purely utilitarian point of view smacks of State control of the mind along with control of all enterprises. Is State everything and the individual nothing? Should the State control our intellects and our emotions too and reduce man to the state of an automation? Certainly, plan for education. Do it by all means but do devise ways and means so that you do not turn away those who want to enter this kingdom of intellectual bliss which is next to the Kingdom of God alone.

Since the earliest times of history, in India, a stage had never been reached when the thirst for knowledge was not quenched and the thirsty denied to partake of the drops of knowledge—which have now been reserved, rationed, restricted and regulated.

The Arguments for Restricting Admissions

Dr K G Saiyidain has in his book "Access to Higher Educations" stated¹ "The recognition of the need for selective admission is to be found not only in India, but also in some other countries of this region, which the Director of this Study had an opportunity to visit. Thus, at the Dacca University Convocation in 1961 President Ayub Khan of Pakistan is reported to have expressed the view 'We want that only the deserving and the meritorious get into the portals of higher education. We want *quality not quantity*. We can do with lesser number of people provided they have the proper training and patriotism to take the country on the devised way'. Similarly, in the course of a discussion the Chancellor of the Teheran University stated that he would like to confine university education to the most capable and promising students, selected on merit and endeavour to provide for them the fullest facilities for acquiring good education. In order to make this possible, he would like to offer adequate scholarships to all needy but meritorious students. It should, however, be noted that this is what *some* educationists in these

countries regard as the right course of action. The actual situation is very different, because admission policies are still largely determined by the pressure of various forces of the same kind that have been operative in this country."

"It may be added that the problem is not as simple as it might seem from the strictly educational point of view—it is not a kind of contrast in black and white. In developing countries like India—and even more emphatically in definitely underdeveloped countries—all the force of argument is not on one side only. For instance in countries, where the economy is rapidly expanding and the leeway of decades has to be made up in a few years, a very large number of educated and trained personnel is needed to undertake the many skilled jobs which have to be done. Universities and public authorities cannot therefore afford to restrict numbers in colleges as they would like to do, have perforce, to compromise in some measure between the need for improving the *quality* of the personnel and training large number of technicians, engineers as well as qualified persons in arts and social sciences who are required urgently to participate in, and carry forward schemes of national development. The problem is therefore a complex one and has to be tackled in each country in the totality of the socio economic context."

The learned author's reference to the views of the President of Pakistan or of the Chancellor of Teheran University cannot serve as beacon lights to illuminate the path of educational policy in this country. Pakistan and Persia—both can be accommodated in one corner of India. Nor have these countries been distinguished in current times in matters educational. The statement of the military head of a State emphasising 'training and patriotism' smacks more of defence oriented outlook than of matters educational and if the incidence of chance or vagaries of history push up a dictator to the helm of affairs, his policies cannot in all matters be accepted as gospels. The long line of Indian educationists has not judged education just from the utilitarian point of view but as an agency to elevate the mind, build fabric for thought and throw back the horizon of the soul. That we require larger and larger number of educated people for the development of our country in various fields, is true. The argument is cogent. But we cannot stop at that, for there are additional arguments for expansion of education—not only at the base of the pyramid but at the top also. If utility were the sole criterion, the education of women should be restricted to only that number as can be absorbed in teaching and other jobs. But few would deny the high value of the level of society which say, a few million additional lady graduates in India would raise it to

Have Admissions in Social Science Studies Reached the Saturation Point?

We are in our present study concerned only with Teaching of Social Sciences, but the figures for students of social sciences are

not available, and for the obvious reason that all students of arts are students of social sciences also, at the Intermediate and B A, stages. The number of disciplines covered by the term social sciences includes economics, history, politics, geography, psychology, public administration, legal education, sociology, etc and harring those students who have offered languages and philosophy for their M A or are doing research in literature or philosophy all students of arts, commerce and law faculties can well be called students of social sciences. Even in philosophy—where psychology or social psychology is included in the syllabi, the students studying it come in the jurisdiction of social sciences. In fact, as regards the enquiry into the number of students of social sciences is concerned, it cannot be separated from those studying humanities. And that is why even the U G C reports speak of humanities and social sciences in one breath (see page 3.) U G C Report for 1963 64).

In regard to general matters such as increase in the number or facilities for admission, what applies to the totality of university students applies to students of social sciences as well and at places we shall refer to higher education in general and to university enrolments (including all the faculties) as the inferences drawn in regard to the whole, apply equally to a section.

in 1962 63, the total number of students in the 55 universities was as follows -

Men	8,81,731
Women	2 00,770
Total	10,82 501*

The percentage of women students to men students was 18.5. In 1962 63 the total estimated population of India was 44,97,54 000. Say, the percentage of university students was 24%. By all standards, we cannot say that the higher education had reached the saturation point.

If we take the percentage of women students separately and take the total estimated female population at 50% of the total population, the percentage of the women students to the total female population comes to 08% (not 8 per cent or 8 per cent but 08 per cent). How can we conceive of an advanced society when we restrict admissions for higher education to 08 per cent? Colossal amounts are being spent on health and hygiene without taking into consideration that a sizable percentage of the amount we are spending on health and hygiene, family planning compulsory education, eradication of many of the social evils and the like could be partially saved, if we popularized higher education among our women folk. We are spending lakhs and lakhs on Sangeet Natak Academy, cultural shows, sending troupes of

artistes abroad, youth festivals, film festivals dance and drama and many so called cultural activities, but when it comes to imparting higher education to our women folk, our leaders (?) want to cry a halt at admissions of 08 per cent

Hundreds of crores have gone waste in fanciful schemes of unproductive national reconstruction. Many of the public undertakings have been criticised adversely by Public Accounts Committees. A number of big projects of doubtful utility have produced many a piece of glory of cement and mortar but when it comes to diffusion of intellectual light in the minds of aspiring young girls who want to enter the portals of a university, our educationists have solidly slammed the door in their faces ignoring the principle that 'the greatness of a country lay not in its massive material achievements but in the moral and spiritual fibre of its people'.¹ Here in Delhi thousands of girls fail to secure admissions in colleges. First, the limit was raised to enable admission to only those girls who obtained 40 per cent or more marks. Now some colleges have raised the limit to 50% and girls obtaining less marks than this in their Higher Secondary examination are denied admission. The *Patriot* (English daily) in its editorial on 25th April 1967 commented as follows

"The annual crisis of too many applicants and too few seats in the capital's colleges will soon be upon us. As usual the authorities will work out hotch-potch arrangements for getting a handful of ill equipped new colleges opened and for packing the lecture halls of existing institutions till they burst at the seam. Complacency at the highest level was revealed when at a recent meeting between the Chief Executive Councillor and some college principals the executive authority of the Delhi Administration, took the view that there would not be more than 5,000 students knocking at the gates of the University. According to others, this will be the number of those who will be refused admission. With such lack of comprehension of the magnitude of problem, the consensus, arrived at that all those seeking entry should be admitted makes little sense.

The Administration plans to open four more colleges and two private colleges are also to be permitted in the coming year. It is doubtful if necessary planning has gone into this scheme. In any case six more colleges—three of them for women—will not solve the problem, and it may not be long before students have to find places on window sills and almirahs, as some lecturers put it last year. The posh colleges which are well equipped, will not accommodate more students than they have provided for, while the poorer ones will be bulled into taking in as many as possible. There is thus little substance in the claim that standards have not deteriorated. What is needed is careful planning, not

1 Quotation from a speech of the Most Rev. Dr Lakdas de Mel, Lord Bishop of Calcutta and the Metropolitan of India, Pakistan, Burma and Ceylon.

last minute patch work " This is the state of affairs in the capital of India. In smaller towns, the conditions are worse. The argument of giving facility of higher education to the limited number which could be absorbed in offices and industries could not apply at all in the case of girls, most of whom desire higher education for the sake of education and want to become better housewives and more enlightened citizens.

And all this in the face of idealism of the socialistic pattern of society ! Have the citizens no right to receive higher education if they want to ? A person is the best judge of what he wants. Desire for higher education is subjective. Why put it to objective tests alone ? It is a great pity that this ancient land of ours which prided itself for its high idealisms of intellectuality and spirituality should measure all its plans with the yard-stick of practical utility alone. Nor is it social justice for the students who appear at the examinations as they have not got equal opportunities or identity of opportunities at schools or colleges or at home. There are girls who come in cars and study at home in air conditioned rooms, with private tutors and expensive help-hands, while the other side of the medal is that hundreds and hundreds of girls have to stand for hours and hours in the glaring sun and sweltering heat, to catch a bus and the conditions of a cramped living do not provide them separate room for study or even normal nourishment or trouble-free time from the household chores. Without taking these background circumstances into consideration, our socialistic pattern of society tramples upon the huddling careers of the poorer sections of society. How are we justified in equating those that are running the race with handicaps with those that are running without them ? That a girl has passed her examination is sufficient eligibility for her admission to the next higher class. This was so, till recently, when our governments' finances began to crack due to their own financial misadventures and running after utopian mirages and while the budget from 1950 to 1966 has increased five fold, no money can be found either by the States or the Union Government to cope with the increasing tide of aspirants for college education and all kinds of arguments are put forward to justify the restricting and rationing of higher education.

In fact the quality of education (generally speaking, for there are always exceptions) has so much gone down that a matriculate of older generation is better in many respects than a graduate of today. And this, we plead, should be an argument for not restricting higher educations but for imparting it, for if we allow these matriculates to become graduates, they would at least acquire abilities on par with a matriculate of a generation back.

Equality of Opportunity in all States

Besides there is one more aspect, to which attention of our educationists is invited. Before we deal with this it is useful to refer to the following table —

State or Union Territory	Enrolment at the beginning of session 1962-63	Estimated population in June 1962 (in 000)	Number of students per million of population
1 Andhra	67,551	26,729	1,840
2 Assam	34,976	12,481	2,802
3 Bihar	1,06,496	48,025	2,213
4 Gujarat	63,841	21,435	2,978
5 Jammu & Kashmir	10,937	3,601	3,053
6 Kerala	56,038	17,407	3,219
7 Madhya Pradesh	62,859	33,794	1,860
8 Madras	68,214	34,068	2,002
9 Maharashtra	1,39,083	40,749	3,413
10 Mysore	57,880	24,198	2,392
11 Orissa	18,627	18,225	1,022
12 Punjab	68,893	20,998	3,281
13 Rajasthan	37,243	20,988	1,774
14 Uttar Pradesh	1,17,899	75,660	1,558
15 West Bengal	1,53,102	36,454	4,200
16 Union Territory and other areas	26,754	8,332	3,211
India	10,90,466	4,53,144	2,406

The number of students in Intermediate is not included. If we include them, the number of students *per million of population* would come to 2,203 (Madhya Pradesh), 2,600 (Rajasthan), 3,666 (Uttar Pradesh) and 2,876 (all-India).

Now, due to the differing historical developments and political growth in the various parts of India, over which the student community or their parents had no control, there has been unequal progress in higher education (unequal at the elementary and secondary stages also) with the result that the percentages of university enrolments in some parts are far behind those in others.¹ Shall we be justified in restricting university education to backward areas (States in which it is low) and not allowing them to catch up?

James Cawthorn has said "Education makes the man." Will it be sound national policy not to let our population grow up to their full stature of intellectual manhood? Shall we impinge upon their natural desire to taste the fruits of higher education? It has almost become the forbidden fruit except for those who have received higher marks—the better looked after section of the society. It would be worth while to pause and ponder over the maxim "Education makes the man." Does education mean three 'R's? Does primary or elementary education (even in which

fields, our targets have not been achieved) constitute education or does it end with the higher secondary classes? Real education is only at the university stage, when it refines the intellect, enriches the mind, builds the moral and spiritual fibre and cultivates the man, mellowing the mental qualities and transforming them from the raw bitterness to the sweet and succulent ripeness

Higher Education vis a-vis Secondary and Elementary Education

While presenting the case for expanding higher education it would be not fair if we do not present the other side of the medal and examine the arguments put by a section of the people who are not in favour of enlarging further the scope of the university education, for, according to their way of thinking, we are already spending more on university education than we should. Writing on the subject, the *Statesman* in its editorial on 29th April, 1967 stated "that entirely too much of these resources is devoted to the University level at the expense of educational opportunity lower down the level. Recently on this page Dr Amartya K Sen presented some *most illuminating figures*. To educate one undergraduate in arts or commerce—with frequent results with which employers if not the public at large are too deplorably familiar—requires the equivalent in annual resources of providing eleven boys or girls with primary education. For science subjects the ratio is 1:39. The ratio for postgraduate instruction is even more glaring, though the wastage is less and the *desert* in general though by no means higher." The above raises two points, (i) that we are spending unduly large amounts on higher education, (ii) that the amounts spent on university education of a student (of arts or commerce) could educate 11 boys and the expenses incurred on one science student in undergraduate class could better be utilized by educating 39 children in a primary class. These are the "*most illuminating figures*" but alas! the logic behind the argument is not "*most illuminating*". As far as advocacy of compulsory primary education is concerned no better advocate of the cause would be found than the writer of these lines and he would respectfully refer the readers to his book '*Compulsory Education in India—Progress during the last fifteen years*'¹. Whether the argument that it is better to educate 11 or 39 students of a primary class rather than students in arts/science in the university holds good, we have grave doubts. The education of an F R C S is expensive and we could train a large number of compounders instead of having an eminent surgeon. And this applies not only to doctors, it applies to engineers and technologists as well. The amount spent on scientists at the atomic energy institutes could well be spent on training of hundreds of raw labourers and instead of spending enormous sums on highly paid staff at our

1 Publishers M/s Universal Book and Stationery Co., 16 Netaji Subhash Marg Delhi-6

ship-building yards or on aircraft manufacturing factories, we could raise an army of carpenters and blacksmiths. Horizontal expansion is good. But horizontal expansion can not replace the vertical one. Here lies the fallacy. What one man with perfect vision will achieve—a thousand blind persons cannot attain. The utility of higher education cannot be brushed aside merely on the basis of the 'most illuminating figures' which equate quantity with quality and underrate the national significance of higher education. Along with plains we want plateaus also, peaks grow out of mountains and not out of shifting sand dunes. Ramans and Bhahhas emerge out of the top level of the pyramid. If we cut the top and expect exceptional peaks out of the base alone, we shall be labouring under a misguided illusion. The excellence, whether in arts or science, politics or industry is achieved when the top is allowed to grow unrestricted and stimulated to achieve excellence. If numbers were the guiding principle, scrap the Field Marshals, Generals, Brigadiers and Colonels. We could recruit much larger number of soldiers by effecting economy on the higher level. But would any scientific evaluation sponsor such a plan?

If we are not in a position to utilize usefully our manpower at different levels, the fault is ours—of our planning, of our inability to exploit new avenues and providing suitable openings for new and vigorous talent, equipped with better tools of greater understanding, adaptability and education. Instead of making education more purposeful it is being made the proverbial goat to be sacrificed at the altar of politics. Instead of giving education a dynamic turn and an effective drive to invest higher education with mental equipment yielding higher dividends, a criminal waste of energy is being perpetrated by insisting on the three language formula and frittering away the vast energy of millions of students directed to learning a third language, only to pamper to the goddess of politics. During the decade 1954-55 to 1964-65, there has been an increase in the number of students receiving technical education. It has been in the following proportion:

	1954-55	1964-65
Engineering and Technology	1	3.7
Medicine including Veterinary Science	1	5.3
Agriculture	1	8.9
Social Science subjects	1	2.8

The question that may be legitimately put is, "Have we reached the saturation point in regard to medical doctors and technologists in engineering and agriculture? Have we sufficient

numbers of doctors and technologists to cope with 50 crore of people and 12 61,597 sq miles of land? Are our natural resources being fully utilized and are we making full use of our industrial potential and have reached the limit where we cannot absorb more educationally qualified persons?

If wider opening for education in science is offered, a large number of students who join arts would switch off to education in science but unfortunately we have not made the rural areas or the rural population, the base of educational centres. All the big universities and colleges are found in big towns. How many High schools and colleges are there in villages and are they well equipped with staff and laboratories to teach and train students in science and technical or agricultural disciplines? If we train our manpower in villages, education would be cheaper. A new direction can be given to the course of studies, which could be more utilitarian. And even in arts or social science subjects, the benefits of higher education are not purely pedantic but pragmatic. Education grows from below but it also percolates down from the top. A society full of highly educated people helps the masses up automatically in matters educational. It is the large trees with spread out deep roots, widely dispersed though such trees may be which help retain the moisture in the land and attract rainfall and not thick flushy lawns alone. Though the masses became illiterate and uneducated through the ages India could retain its culture and excellence of academic disciplines, because it could continue the chain of intellectual aristocracy unbroken and just as it is the pillars, which sustain the structure, it is the coterie of the higher educated which helps society in keeping up its educational level. It would, therefore, be not a service to the nation but a positive disservice to block or cut off the arteries of higher education in the country.

Need for expanding higher Education

We have already stated earlier that if the government opened more technical schools and colleges—a sizable proportion of students, who join the arts and social science colleges, could be siphoned off to the technical sides. But even as it is, we have to examine whether we have reached a limit in respecting of imparting higher education. The Education Commission 1964 66 states on page 46

“Of all the different factors which influence the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant. Nothing is more important than securing a sufficient supply of high quality recruits to the teaching profession, providing and creating satisfactory conditions of work in which they can be fully effective. In view of the rapid expansion of educational facilities expected during the next three plans and specially in view of the urgent need to raise standards

to the highest level and to keep them continually improving these problems have now acquired unprecedented importance and urgency. A programme of high priority in the proposed educational reconstruction, therefore, is to feed back a significant proportion of the talented men and women from schools and colleges into the educational system."

It is an admitted fact that we have a dearth of educationally qualified teachers. And if we want to liquidate the appalling illiteracy in the country we must have a larger number of men (who have received university education in arts and social science subjects) to grapple with the problem of mass illiteracy. The figures are more eloquent than any words of comment and some facts and figures, as extracted from the last census (1961) are given on pages

If we want to liquidate illiteracy we certainly want university educated persons in larger and larger numbers. We may quote a few lines from our book *Progress of compulsory education during the last fifteen years 1951-66*

Literacy increased from 17 per cent in 1951 to 24 per cent in 1961, the last census year. In this period the number of illiterates also increased from 298 million to 334 million.

Speaking on UNESCO literacy programme at India International Centre, New Delhi on 17th September, Dr V. K. R. V. Rao, Member of the Planning Commission, observed with regret that the adult literacy programme had not been taken with seriousness all these years at the government level. Whatever had been done in this field had been done by voluntary and non official organisations.

All these facts and figures have been provided to prove that if we want real progress admissions to higher education should not be restricted. Tables giving the number of literates and the percentages of literacy have been given on pages 271 and 272.

Financial misadventure on other fronts has repercussions on higher education

It may well be argued that the national and state finances cannot afford to impart higher education to all and sundry and therefore the administration picks and chooses the candidates for admission who, by virtue of their past records can be reasonably presumed to be worthier recipients of higher education and that we have to keep in view the national indent and confine the figures of admissions only to such numbers as could be absorbed in the public and private sectors of business, industry and administration and that the pragmatic view is more scientific than a utopian one—however liberal it may look in theory.

This is the basis which many of our educationists have adopted. Sorrow to the nation where educationists, the guardian angels and trustees of the national intellectual growth, become tinged with the political dye! People in the government and

TABLE A
Literacy in India and States

State	Literate		Percentage of Literacy	
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons Males Females
India	10,55,25,997	7,79,46,274	2,75,79,723	24 0 34 5 13 0
States				
1. Andhra Pradesh	76,26,527	54,82,933	21,44,194	21 2 30 2 12 0
2. Assam	32,48,055	23,61,724	8,86,331	27 4 37 3 16 0
3. Bihar	85,47,045	69,58,967	15,96,878	18 4 29 8 6 9
4. Gujarat	12,83,256	41,73,973	19,09,883	30 5 41 1 19 1
5. Jammu & Kashmir	3,92,761	3,21,827	70,934	11 8 17 0 4 3
6. Kerala	79,19,220	45,96,265	33,22,955	46 8 55 0 38 9
7. Madhya Pradesh	55,44,862	44,01,454	10,63,408	17 1 27 0 6 7
8. Madras	1,05,80,616	75,32,923	30,48,293	31 4 44 5 18 2
9. Maharashtra	1,17,91,870	85,08,657	32,04,413	29 8 42 0 16 8
10. Mysore	59,90,505	43,52,428	16,38,157	25 4 36 1 14 2
11. Nagaland	66,117	45,917	20,200	17 9 24 0 11 3
12. Orissa	30,81,245	30,42,004	9,59,241	21 7 34 7 8 6
13. Punjab	49,13,396	35,91,177	13,26,219	24 2 33 0 14 1
14. Rajasthan	30,65,568	25,04,983	5,60,585	15 2 23 7 5 8
15. Uttar Pradesh	1,30,13,103	1,05,46,795	24,66,308	17 6 27 3 7 0
16. West Bengal	1,02,25,664	74,44,006	27,71,658	29 3 40 1 17 0

TABLE B
Literacy in Union Territories

<i>Union Territories & other Areas</i>	<i>Literates</i>		<i>Percentage of Literacy</i>	
	<i>Persons</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Persons Males Females</i>
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	21,372	16,675	4,697	33.6 42.4 19.3
Delhi	11,02,298	9,01,001	4,97,497	52.7 60.8 42.5
Himachal Pradesh	2,31,661	1,91,139	40,525	17.1 27.2 6.2
Laccadive Minicoy & Amindiv Islands	5,610	4,273	1,337	23.3 31.8 11.0
Tripura	2,31,103	1,75,060	56,120	20.2 29.6 10.2
Manipur	2,97,276	1,74,656	62,620	30.4 45.1 15.9
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	5,495	4,342	1,153	9.5 14.7 4.1
Goa, Daman & Diu	1,92,716	1,18,111	74,605	30.75 39.04 23.02
NEFA	24,200	21,879	2,381	7.2 12.3 1.5
Pondicherry	1,36,149	92,384	45,765	37.4 50.4 21.6
Sikkim	19,993	16,721	3,278	12.3 19.6 4.3

even outside, who are always standing on their tiptoes of expectation to receive some favour or the other from the government have not the courage to point to the colossal waste of money which our government has made and is making. It is not possible here to plunge into the discussion of national waste on staggeringly gigantic scale, which has been one of the woeful features of our government for the last twenty years. We shall give below just some side lights—press cuttings of the month to show how economy could be geared and effective saving made in many other quarters and funds found to enlarge the brain-trust of India.

1 Zila Parishads Misuse Crores of Rupees

Zila Parishads and Anchalik Parishads of four districts—Midnapore, 24 Parganas, Purulia and Bankura—have been found to have misused crores of rupees granted for relief work before the elections, according to a report prepared recently by the West Bengal Panchayat Department.

Each of the Districts received more than Rs 1 crore and chairman and vice chairman of the parishad were involved in the distribution of the relief money.

Among the numerous serious charges levelled against them are absence of accounts, violation of rules and regulations, allotment of more money to individuals and organizations than necessary, and expenditure on false accounts."

(*Statesman*, 4.5.1967)

2 Administration Blamed for Huge Waste

"Two eminent economists said here yesterday that weakness and instability of administrative machinery were mainly responsible for the phenomenon of waste" in the country. Only by developing a conscience to avoid waste, could this phenomenon be resisted.

Speaking at a symposium on "War on Waste", sponsored by the Junior Chamber of Commerce, they said a sum of Rs 6 crores—the average waste in India per day—could be saved if the administrative machinery were stable and efficient. Though the same party was in power both at the Centre and in the States, for a long time, it could not evolve a policy to check the avoidable waste in the wealth of the nation.

Mr J'A Pai, former Chairman of the Food Corporation of India, said a considerable portion of the imported food grains was wasted at various points of transport, before reaching the centres of distribution because of careless and irresponsible handling. Fifteen to twenty per cent of the imported food grains was wasted at the time of clearance at the docks. The amount of waste was equal to the quantity of food that we begged from Burma or Thailand, he added.

Mr Pai said part of the imported food grains got mixed up with oils, as they were brought in oil tankers. "We are so

poor that we cannot afford even to hire a cargo ship to bring imported material," he added

The percentage of food waste in milling was upto 8 percent. If milling was carefully done with the help of modernized mills, part of the waste could be done away with. "Our inability to modernize ourselves had come in the way of many of our problems," he added

Prof C N Vakil (author of chapter II, Part I of this book), a Director of the Reserve Bank of India, said that progress in economic and social fields involved disciplined hard work coupled with patriotic and nationalistic considerations.

According to Prof Vakil, waste in the field of education was grave. The standard of education in our educational institutions had gone down "irremediably low." The British rulers, he said, introduced a system of education whereby they could produce good clerks from our universities he added
(*The Evening News*, 4 5 1967)

3. "The Country is facing the gravest economic crisis of its history brought about by 20 years of Congress Mismanagement in agriculture and industry".

(Editorial in the *Hindustan Times* dated 15 5 1967)

4. During the period 1951-1965, about 55 million tonnes of food grains were imported. The value of imported food grains, besides the PL-480 arrivals, is estimated at 2277.76 crores. The cereals imported in 1966 is about 12 million tonnes.
5. Speaking at a meeting at Madras on 16 5 1967 Dr. V K.R.V. Rao said, "We would have solved all our problems if only we had concentrated on agriculture in three plan periods."
6. Thousands of tons of grain are lost every year because of absence of modern cargo handling facilities at most Indian ports. At the Madras harbour alone, rough unofficial estimates put the net loss of imported grain last year at about 35,000 tonnes—over 20% of the total of 11.58 lakh tons unloaded through the port. One foreign expert who has gone into the economics of this project told this reporter that the Indian Government which now pays substantial sums of foreign exchange as demurrage on chartered food vessels would find it much more profitable to install bulk grain handling equipment at Madras as also other major ports.
(*Statesman*, 19 4 1967)
7. Mr J R D Tata said here (Bombay) yesterday that economic affairs of the country were in the hands of 'amateurs' which resulted in the present economic mess. Mr Tata said that we were in a mess and nobody could assess what would happen—whether it would be better or worse. "My feelings are that probably the situation will get worse, before they get better. The complexity and magnitude of the problems were so great that it was doubtful whether the Government and

Parliament in its present mood could solve them " Mr Tata said that in the Budget Rs 1,000 crore were allotted for defence and Rs 500 crore to paying interest on loans. As such there was little money for development plans. The talk of cutting defence expenditure was tahoo. "I am the last person to advocate cutting in defence expenditure in the interest of the security, but I am also convinced that a poor country like India cannot go on spending nearly Rs 1,000 crore on defence "

He further said that we had suffered for the last 18 years for want of professional experts in the economic field

(*Statesman*, 20 4 1967).

8. In whatever I have done, my purpose was to tell my people of the greatest single impersonal fact that anywhere between a third and a half of the annual national produce is eaten up by just one per cent of the Indian population—Dr Ram Manohar Lohia
(*Statesman*, 22 5 1967).

We do not want to digress or dilate upon the economic mess which has made the country financially broke. Our foreign policy has landed us in a jam and what we have spent on Kashmir alone would have opened free vistas of higher education to all those who desired to enter it. Not long ago an eminent politician who occupies a very high position as the head of a political party but has not command over the English language is reported to have succinctly summed up the situation in six words, "Big Men, Big Minds, Big Mistakes." Big minds who despise to tread on earth, but only try to float on clouds with dreams of golden utopia obsessing their ambitious urges have brought about neck-deep heavy indebtedness to the country due to which widespread setback and suffering are the lot of the people in various fields, including that of higher education. No food for the body, no food for the mind !

Crippled Finances of the Country Cripple Higher Education

It should normally be deviating from our line of discussion if we drift to examine the malaise economic, which has overtaken the country for the subject of this report is Teaching of Social Sciences in India and not the problems of indebtedness of the Government of India, but since inflation has affected adversely the teachers, money value of their salaries having been eroded materially due to spiral rise in prices and dwindling of purchasing power and since the students have been hard hit by narrow economic zigzags of the Government, leading to bottlenecks of admissions in most institutions, it becomes necessary to refer in a few words to the financial links which have closed round the neck of higher education, strangling more and more with pressures of political misadventures and playing away with public finances in an irresponsible manner. Here are some facts —

(i) India's Public Debt increased fivefold since inception of planning in 1951. The total public debt at the end of 1966-67 financial year was Rs. 10,838 crore against Rs. 2054 crore at the end of 1950-51. Till the end of the second plan internal debt was the predominant constituent of the total public debt forming about 84%. The internal debt is composed of current loans, treasury bills, special floating loans, prize bonds, loans in course of repayment and Treasury Deposit receipts and other floating loans. But from the beginning of the third plan, the proportion of external debt steadily increased and by the end of March last (1967), external loans accounted for about 43% of the total public debt. The latest position is that the public debts amount to Rs. 14,355 crore. These figures are exclusive of PL-480 deposits.

(ii) The position in regard to Foreign Debts is as follows :—

	<i>Year</i>	<i>Foreign Debt</i>	
(a) Commencement of First Plan	1951	No Debt	
(b) Commencement of Second Plan	1956	Rs. 114	crore
(c) Commencement of Third Plan	1961	Rs. 761	"
(d) Commencement of Fourth Plan	1967	Rs. 4,624	"
(e) The present position	1967	Rs. 5,413	"

(iii) Rupee deposits from P L. 480

In 1966-67 Rs. 877.60 crore

Present estimated position Rs. 1026.30 crore

Investment of Foreign Capital in India

<i>(iv) Year</i>	<i>Amount</i>
1948	Rs. 264.64 crore
End of 1962	Rs. 735.5 "

Deficit Financing

<i>Period</i>	<i>Amount</i>
(i) End of First Plan	Rs. 330 crore
(ii) End of Second Plan	Rs. 954 "
(iii) End of Third Plan	Rs. 1,400 "
(iv) End of First year of Fourth Plan	Rs. 1,750 "

Cost of Living

<i>Year</i>	<i>Index number with 1949 base</i>
1950-51	101
1965-56	169
December, 1966	197
January, 1967	197

Since Independence more and more wealth is being concentrated in the hands of a privileged few, who control the wire-pullings in elections. The Report of the Monopolies Commission has shown that 75 industrial groups own 1 536 Joint Stock Companies. Four big groups alone control 283 companies with total assets amounting to more than Rs 800 crore. The proportion of the assets of the 75 groups to those of all non government and non banking companies works out to 46.9 per cent.

"Over the last 15 years the combined expenditure of the Centre, the States and the Union Territories has on revenue account risen from Rs 700 crore to Rs 3628 crore i.e. more than five fold increase.* The increase in non developmental expenditure for the same period is four fold and that for developmental expenditure is more than seven times."

All the above facts and figures have been stated to show that poor higher education is suffering due to our mishandling on other fronts. According to Dr P S Loknathban, Director General of National Institute of Applied Economic Research, education was the only way to increase the earnings of a nation because there was a definite correlation between education and earnings.

According to the writer of these lines education free and unfettered would raise the intellectual level of the society. The benefits percolate from top to bottom. The dearth of well-educated and qualified teachers would disappear and productivity in other fields would also increase.

As regards unsuitability of the modern educated men for the national needs, the fault does not lie so much with those who receive education as with those who impart it—who design the frame work and prescribe the syllabi. In western countries, practical training is an essential part of education, which keeps up with theoretical instruction. Here in India, the instruction is more bookish and the system of evaluation has reduced it to dull learning by "rote" and disgorging the same rapidly in the examination halls. It is for our educationists to make it more purposeful, to bend it to more beneficial directions and orient it to be more useful, to the individual and the society.

There is need of economy on other fronts and to divert it to education. Even in defence, reference to pruning which is considered a taboo, there is scope for economy. We agree with Dr. Krishna Swami when he states "It is necessary to distinguish between defence expenditure and defence preparedness. A large defence expenditure is not synonymous with greater defence preparedness. Anyone familiar with the expenditure pattern of our defence will admit that there is scope for reducing defence outlays by more efficient methods of management of materials and greater logistical control over provision on war-time footing."

*Aspects of the Economic Dilemma—by Dr A Krishna Swami

Is Our Expenditure on Education Sufficient ?

It would be relevant in this context to quote from the Proceedings of the Seventh State Education Ministers' Conference held at New Delhi on 25th and 26th April 1964, Section VI (a) Education Finance, page 86, which states

"Even with the increase, it may be pointed out that the total educational expenditure in India is far too low by any standards"

In 1950-51 the total expenditure per head of population was only Rs 3.4. It increased to Rs 8.00 in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to Rs 11.00 at the end of the Third Plan (1965-66). In order to provide a good system of education, probably a minimum expenditure of Rs 30/- per head of population may be needed.

In 1949-50, India spent only 1.13 per cent of her national income on education. This rose to 2.43 per cent in 1960-61 and is expected to rise to above 3% by 1965-66 or the end of the Third Plan. *This is one of the lowest rates of educational expenditure anywhere in the world.* The advanced countries spend much more. For instance the U.K. spends 5.3 per cent of her national income on education, the U.S.A. spends 6.2 per cent, Japan spends 5.2 per cent, and the U.S.S.R. spends 7%. Even for the developing countries an expenditure of not less than 4.5 per cent of the national income seems to be inescapable.

Taking the total expenditure of the Central and the State Governments together, the expenditure on education from Government funds was 8.2 per cent in 1950-51 and it increased only to 12.5 per cent in 1960-61. This is very low as compared to advanced countries. Japan for instance spends 21.4 per cent of the total governmental expenditure on education. The Kher Committee recommended that the Government of India should spend 20% of their total budget on education."

According to the view of the writer of these lines, even with the funds we are spending on universities we could expand higher education further. Unfortunately we have developed a pompous outlook not only in regard to living but in regard to education also. Our university buildings must compare with the world's best ones. Cafes and cafeterias, games and sports, lawns and long avenues, swimming pools and shows, festivals and foppishness found anywhere in the western world must have their replica in the Indian universities. The great ideals of Rabindranath Tagore, founder of Shantiniketan, or of Madan Mohan Malviya who set up the Banaras Hindu University no longer catch up our imagination. The idea that we could have bigger classes with the existing number of teachers also does not appeal to us for it would be against the accepted educational fashions. No efforts have been made to mould the methods and manners of education to conform to our poverty. We suffer on account of this inferiority complex. We want to copy prosperous countries

even in details to enable us to keep our heads high in false vanity. In this connection we would like to refer to the memorandum to the Education Commission 1964-66 (othari Commission) by Shri D R Gadgil, Director Gokhale, Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona. This institute is for research work leading to Ph D Degree and Shri D R Gadgil is one of the outstanding educationists of the country. He is now the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission.

We would like therefore to give excerpts from his memorandum to indicate the lines of thought of some of our most intellectual educationists.

Suggestions for Improvement

" I may indicate what appears to me the most important possibility of improving the quality of our teaching and the performance of our students with relatively little additional investment of resources.

The inadequacy of the performance of our college in Poona is apparent not through indiscipline of students but through the proliferation of highly successful private coaching classes. This points to an important deficiency in the working specially of the Arts Colleges * The teaching in these is confined almost entirely to formal lecturing. *There is little attempt at guiding the reading and work of students and less at making them work regularly.* In the circumstances, idling by students for the major part of the year becomes inevitable and equally the year-end recourse to the coaching class. The college has to look on itself as the institution which keeps the student busy for a reasonable part of the day and assists or, if necessary, compels them to work regularly. It has also to consider that one of its aims is that of helping the student in a practical manner to do what he and his parents are highly interested in, *i.e.*, passing his examinations. It may appear to be a lowering of our sights to place emphasis on the role of the college in preparing students for examinations; however, if this is done a minimum standard, against which the performance of the new colleges that are being established in great number, will become available.

The additional inputs required to achieve the aims should not be considerable. Practical approaches to this matter have been blocked by certain old notions rigidly held. For example, there seems little justification for the insistence on small colleges and small lecture classes. A college well equipped and with extensive grounds like say the Ferguson of Poona should not be put under unnecessary restrictions. In every other sphere we are advocating as full a use of the physical plant as possible and as long as proper standards are maintained. This should apply also

*Most of the subjects included in Social Sciences are included in the Faculty of Arts. Out of about 70 universities in India, only a few have separate Faculty of Social Sciences.

to educational institutions. Similarly it is meaningless to limit the numbers for classes of formal lectures. With modern equipment even a class of 250 in a good auditorium can listen in with equal profit to a formal lecture as a class of 50. In fact, it would be better to combine as large a class as possible for formal lectures. This will, at the reduced load, make the best talent available for the purpose and avoid repetitive lecturing. It is for guidance, written work and discussions that smaller classes and the appropriate staff for them are required. This additional input for instructional work in shape of additional instructional staff is absolutely essential and all efforts should be made to put it in. It is important for the U G C to look after such minimum basic requirements before thinking in terms of swimming pools.

Part-time Education

A large, almost unexplored means of equalizing educational opportunity is that of part-time instruction. The institution as in the University of Poona, has indicated a direction of effort. This must be followed up by using the building and library facilities and to the extent possible, the members of staff of the college for purposes of part time education. Special departments of college and of universities may interest themselves in such activities. One could go on to think in terms also of broad casting programme at suitable times. But this re orientation will come about only if the widest diffusion of educational opportunity and the provision of an effective ladder of educational facilities for all, are recognised as national aim."

How to Cope with Increasing Enrolments

The problem of coping with increasing enrolments has been receiving the attention of the education ministers. In their seventh conference the suggestions were outlined as follows

'To provide facilities of university education to the rapidly increasing number of students, the following measures should also be adopted

- (a) Correspondence Course,
- (b) Part-Time Courses and
- (c) Evening College "

The Delhi University has started Correspondence Courses. An evening college also exists for those who are employed. But what is necessary is that all the three facilities should be expanded to the fullest measure and extended all over the country.

We have quoted Shri D R Gadgil to emphasise that with modern auditorium facilities larger number of students could be accommodated. Once certain principles, to make available higher educational facilities, are conceded, they must be implemented on an all India basis. Delhi and Ghazipur are twelve miles apart. Delhi is under central administration. It is within the jurisdiction of the Delhi University. Ghazipur is in Uttar

Pradesh and the colleges there are affiliated to the Agra University (now to the Meerut University) with the result that thousands of students travel every day by rail and road and attend morning classes and come back to Delhi to join their offices or follow their vocation at noon

A pertinent question naturally arises. Can what is good enough for Ghaziabad college be not good enough for Delhi? The legalistic answer would, no doubt, be that Delhi is a residential university and must conform to certain standards, while the Ghaziabad college being merely an affiliated college, situate in a small township can relax. But this is not an equitable reply. Why not have a few colleges at Delhi, providing the same facilities as Ghaziabad does, so that the heavy drain on the time and energy of thousands of students is saved? If a separate affiliating university is started at Delhi and if private candidates from all over India are allowed to appear at all of its examinations the number of students appearing at its examinations, as well as those declared successful would far exceed the students appearing/declared successful by the existing Delhi University

This brings us to another question raised by Shri Gadgil—that of private colleges or coaching classes. It is a tragic irony that on the one hand we shall not allow admissions to lakhs and lakhs of students because our finances are at a low ebb, because we have to pay for increasing food shipments necessitated by our criminal neglect of agriculture, because we have to meet the mounting defence budgets, a penalty for our infantile acrobaticism in diplomacy and because we have to implement our ambitious plans conceived in monarchically generous moods and implemented in slipshod manner, and on the other we shall not let students even appear privately at examinations. Keep the standards of examinations as high as we will but if students are allowed to appear as private candidates, we shall find tens of thousands of students passing even the M A (what to talk of B A) examinations with credit. Private colleges and coaching classes as well, will meet the situation. One will have the choice to join a college of one's liking. Above all, one will be able to pick and choose. And if examinations be the criteria of ability, which our educational authorities have obviously adopted as the yardstick for admissions, the authorities will be agreeably surprised to see the results which can be achieved without any drain on the public exchequer. The whole question has the same underlying principle as that of the public sector and the private sector, of a public undertaking and the private undertaking. The State has the monopoly of imparting higher education and wants rigidly to stick to its monopolistic rights without being in a position to fulfil its obligations.

The principle of small scale industries has been conceded along with heavy industries. Private enterprise shares the field along with public undertakings. For example, in road transport,

The cottage industry is being given fillip at every stage. Production of hand loom is even being subsidized. Why not allow higher education also as a cottage industry? Will it be that incongruous? The hand loom is selling in the market along with mill products of joint stock companies having the subscribed and paid-up capitals of crores of rupees. Though it is on record that ancient India had educational institutions with a pupil strength of ten thousand or more, yet the base of education—even of higher education—in this country had been the cottage—rather than big institutions. The system of education was cheap and unostentatious. Plain living and high thinking was the motto, which has been replaced in many spheres today by high living and confused thinking. And despite political handicaps, India has produced intellectual giants. We would like to refer that when Shri Chandra Dhar Guleri from the Maharaja's College, Jaipur topped the list of successful candidate, who had appeared at the Allahabad University (in the beginning of twentieth century when the jurisdiction of this university extended to the whole of U.P., C.P., Rajasthan etc.) the 'Pioneer' (an English daily) commented that it was surprising that a "solitary student who has secured first class and the first position at the B.A. examination of the University of Allahabad is from the little Maharaja's College that has no European on its staff."

To revert to the main point, if the monopolistic rigour of only the State imparting higher education is relaxed and if we extend the same liberality of outlook to it as to cottage industries, the gordian knot can be cut most speedily and to the satisfaction of all concerned.

Some universities allow teachers to appear privately at M.A. Extend the facilities to non teachers also and let them appear at the university examinations. Those who fail will do so at their risk but this bottle neck position of obstructing higher education to thousands of students every year will be eliminated.

Teaching by Post

Only this year correspondence courses for higher secondary examination have been started by the Directorate of Education Delhi. A natural question arises. Why was it not done earlier? Correspondence Courses for B.A. have been started by the Delhi University and have been in force during the last few years. May we pertinently ask if this method is good enough for B.A., why is it not good enough for M.A. As a result of experience it can be asserted that more enlightend the mind is the more can it learn itself. It is only in the initial stages of education that one has to lean on others for support. As the intellect develops, it becomes increasingly capable of comprehending directly from the written word, eliminating gradually the need of oral instruction. A plant when young needs watering but when its roots go deep into the earth, and its trunk rises high up with lofty branches

all around, then it sucks not only sub oil water but also absorbs humidity from the atmosphere. So is it with the human mind.

Let there be correspondence courses in all universities and for all examinations, even for those examinations where small practical laboratory work is required. The theory can be studied at home and practicals completed in the laboratories. And in subjects which do not require practical laboratory work, it is all the more easy and economical to teach by post. We should have courage enough to shed out false ego that only a big campus and corporate teaching can impart higher education. We should imitate other countries when imitation is good. Let us take a leaf out of the methods of imparting education in other countries. We are giving below an excerpt from the *Statesman* dated 12.5.1967.

"With more people working in factories every year, specially in the advanced and industrialized countries, teaching by correspondence has assumed great importance.

In the U S S R for instance, says professor I S Bogolubov, nearly half the students undergoing higher education do it through correspondence. Working for the all Union Polytechnical Institute by correspondence, the main organization for higher extra mural and evening time study, the Professor with his colleagues is responsible for the formulation of study programmes. The immensity of the task can be gathered by the fact that apart from having 14 faculties, the institute has on its rolls over 36,000 students. Courses in agriculture, industry and economics, public health and sport are among the subjects taken up by the institute.

Pupils educated through correspondence courses have the same rights and opportunities as the day time scholars, says professor Bogolubov. And the main principle of specialized secondary and higher education by correspondence is "independent study of subjects.

What has made this system highly successful in the U S S R is the advance made in broadcasting and television. Both are extensively used, as are 'programmed learning and teaching machines.

In India, with her limited resources and different set of priorities, correspondence courses are generally being conducted in the humanities. More universities with such facilities are needed, says the expert on Correspondence Courses.

Since he was here last (as visiting professor at Bombay University from 1963 to 1965) he finds a welcome change for the better in the number and content of Correspondence Courses. As guest of the University Grants Commission he has visited the Bombay, IIT and other educational institutions in Delhi, Bangalore and Mysore.

Higher Education in India vis-a vis America

We have pleaded all through this chapter for not throttling higher education in India, because while an error in the judgement of an individual has not such serious repercussions as a misguided policy of the government. A survey by the Deputy Educational Adviser to the Government of India estimates the number of students seeking admission in Delhi colleges as 14,279 while even with the "extended college scheme" the maximum capacity of colleges at Delhi is 9,276. Thus about 5,000 students will be denied education.

The crucial point is: Has our education (higher) reached the limit—as far as numbers are concerned? According to the U G C report for the year 1965-66 the total number of students (including those in PUC, graduate, postgraduate and diploma/certificate classes in 1965-67 was 17,28,773. The final figures for 1966-67 are not yet available. We may roughly put the current figure at, say, 19 lakh. Now in absolute terms, do 19 lakh constitute a satisfactory figure for a population of 50 crore of people? What is the yardstick to measure—whether the strength is adequate? Not the opinion of those who sing to the tune of the government in power. The only yardstick can be a comparison with the figures of an advanced country like U S A.

We are giving below the figures of population of U S A

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>
1900	75,994,575
1910	91,972,266
1920	105,710,620
1930	1,22,775,046
1940	1,31,669,275
1950	1,50,697,361
1960	1,78,484,236

Now, we are giving below the figures of students receiving higher education in the U S A. The following figures have been quoted by Mr. Haridas T. Mazumdar on page 645 of his book. "The Grammar of Sociology—Man in Society"

Enrolment in American colleges and universities, both privately and publicly supported in certain years :

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of students</i>
1900	2,37,592
1910	3,55,215
1920	5,27,880
1930	1,100,737
1940	1,494,203
1950	2,659,021
1956	3,450,001

According to the U S A governmental statistical department, the position in 1964 was as follows

Institutions of higher education	2,132
Total enrolment in colleges and universities (males, 2,772,562 females 1,722,664)	4,494,626

For a population of about 18 crore in U S A the number of students receiving higher education is about 45 lakh. In India for a population of 50 crore the number is 19 lakh. So, we should not put the argument that the number of students receiving higher education is satisfactory.

A word about the three plans, praises for which, mostly stimulated by government sources, partymen and aspirants for government favours, have been reverberating ceaselessly throughout the length and the breadth of India. The plans allocated the following amounts for educational expansion and development

Expenditure under the plans (in crores of Rs)

	<i>First Plan</i>	<i>II Plan</i>	<i>III Plan</i>
Elementary Education	85	95	209
Secondary ,,	20	51	88
University ,,	14	48	82
Other Educational Schemes	14	27	29
Total	133	221	401

And we are paying Rs 500 crore every year as interest on loans incurred by us during the three plan periods !

We shall consider our labours amply rewarded if our plea for expanding higher education would move those in authority to rethink on our educational policy.

CHAPTER XIII

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

Writing in "Access to Higher Education in India" Shri K G Saiyidain observed that "one of the criticisms against the undergraduate courses in the various faculties of the Indian universities has been that they tend to introduce undue specialization at too early a stage. This drawback is proposed to be corrected by the introduction of a scheme of general education which has been worked out after studying similar movements in some of the western countries. The main objective of this change is to break down the existing gulf between students taking up programmes of studies in arts, social sciences, natural sciences or even professional subjects". This observation refers to 1962 period. But as far as the courses of studies are concerned there has been no appreciable change or alteration. Nor, with due deference to the learned author, can such an experiment be successful in India, on account of several factors, one of which is the learning of several languages.

In western countries, the medium of instruction is the mother-tongue from the primary stage to the M A stage. The proficiency acquired in one's mother tongue can never be had so easily in a foreign language. It is true, lakhs and lakhs of educated Indians have acquired a mastery over English and have greater fluency in speech and facility in writing English than in their own mother tongue, but at what a colossal cost of time, energy and money. The older generations which studied from ninth class onwards only through the English medium and continued their studies right up to M A are naturally more proficient in English than in their own mother tongue, because the study of the latter was left far behind at the matriculation stage.

To revert to the main issue under consideration, the practice of introducing a little of arts, a little of the social sciences, a little of the natural sciences would not correct the drawback but would rather cripple the students compelled to bear the burden of specialization which alone can carry them through life. The difference between conditions in India and abroad lies in the fact referred to above, the young students have to put enormous energy in learning a foreign language which is obligatory in India. Not only that. Along with English and Hindi, a classical language like Sanskrit is also added as an optional subject. And the latest craze is that a student in northern parts of India should learn Tamil or any other southern Indian language or Bengali to assuage the feelings of people in the south or Bengal, who have to learn Hindi. This learning of Tamil or a non Hindi language by students in north has been thought of as a counterpoise to the grievance of people of non Hindi speaking areas, in the name of national integration. If all the time

is thus occupied and all the energy thus expended on learning of languages, would it not be at the cost of other subjects and the general education so got can only be a conglomeration of patches here and patches there. Contrary to the opinions of some educationists though it may appear, the writer of these lines makes bold to assert that, we should consider the specialization not a drawback but a helpful asset.

The structure of courses of studies in the Indian universities is so silhouetted that whereas through M A or M Sc in western countries students really become masters, in most of the Indian universities in India, students become simply eligible to make a headway themselves, and though the degree of 'Master' is conferred upon them they are not at all qualified to be called 'Masters'. This may not be true in case of a few exceptionally gifted or brilliant students, but the mass of students turned out year after year by our universities do not fulfil the high standard of 'Masters' in the subject, that one should expect.

And in B A the condition is still worse. In good old days, history of India and history of the U K (because India was a colony of the Britishers) and geography of the world were compulsory for matriculation students. Now the study of geography has been gradually edged out of school course, and the resulting ignorance of large masses of students is simply appalling. The quality of entrants, the quality of teachers and the quality of teaching have all gone down. We shall however examine in this connection the impact, of the medium of instruction, the quality of performance by the students and the general lowering of standards on account of the language muddle.

In a survey of teaching in Indian universities we find that the two unfavourable important features have been (i) the increasing student indiscipline and the lawless aggressiveness, which the students have displayed, here, there and everywhere. They have not only held demonstrations but shown a militant spirit unworthy of Indian tradition and thereby shown themselves to be younger cousins of the Indonesian student community. However, this is too vast a topic and has deep roots in the general dissatisfaction in the country and consequent frustration in the student community and we would not like here to drift into its discussion for the principal topic of this chapter is the medium of instruction. Student unrest has been discussed in a subsequent chapter.

(ii) The language muddle caused by the inflexible attitude of the opposite camps of politicians and the university educational authorities, has been made the battle-field of the warring groups which may be classified into (i) Pro English, (ii) Anti-English groups and also (iii) Hindi and (iv) Anti Hindi protagonists. These four are not the only camps pitched in the arena of university education. There are camps which flutter the flags of (i) Mother

tongue, (ii) Mother tongue unsuitable for higher education and yet others who may be heard giving clarion calls and rattling political sabres pushing aggressively (i) the claim of the regional language and others (ii) who denounce equally the regional language as being inappropriate and unsuitable for instruction at higher levels. Thus are the eight camps vociferously fighting the battle of language, not so much for the sake of enriching the learning community with precious knowledge with the least inconvenience and in largest measure, but mostly to gain a political point or consolidate their respective party positions or to better their chances at the next elections or to win an approbation of the die hards who assisted them in their election and some vocal leaders rattle their swords and spit fire, because the medium of instruction, has provided them to show off their skill of debating and voicing a dissatisfaction which they feel would bring them higher divided from the galleries, to which they play in the hope of being recognized as champions of the weak.

Before we examine this question further we must present the picture, the mother tongue or the regional language or Hindi occupies in the national field

Languages dialects and number of persons speaking

I Languages (inclusive of mother tongues grouped under them) specified in schedule VIII of the Constitution

<i>Languages</i>	<i>Persons speaking</i>
Assamese	68,03,465
Bengali	3,38 88,933
Gujarati	2,03,04 464
Hindi	13,34,35,360
Kannada	1,74,15 827
Kashmiri	19,56 115
Malayalam	1,70,15,782
Marathi	3,32 86,771
Oriya	1,57,19,398
Punjabi	1,09,50,826
Sanskrit	2 544
Tamil	3,05,62,705
Teluga	3,76,68,132
Urdu	2 33,23,518

II Languages (inclusive of mother-tongue under them) having strength of 5,00,000 and over but not included in (I) above

Bihari	1,68,06,772
Rajasthani	1,49,33,016
Santhali	32,47,048
Bhili	24,39,611
Gondi	15,01,431
Sindhi	13,71,932
Konkani	13,52,363
Kivukh oxon	11,41,804
Kumaun	10,30,254
Nepali	10,21,102
Pahari (unspecified)	10,15,203
Tulu	9,35,108
Garhwali	8,09,967
Mundari	7,37,037
Ho	6,48,359
Manipuri/Maithei	6,36,490
Kui	5,12,161

III Languages (inclusive of mother-tongues grouped under them) having strength of 1,00,000 to 499,999 but not included in (I) above

Khandeshi	4,28,126
Khasi	3,64,063
Bodo/Boro	3,61,801
Garo	3,07,040
Tripuri	2,99,643
Savara	2,65,721
Mund	2,61,653
Mundiali	2,27,352
Lushai/Mizo	2,22,202
Karku	2,20,242
Kharia	1,77,149
Khond/Kondh	1,68,027
Mikir	1,54,893
Bhumij	1,42,003
Koya	1,40,777
Niri	1,36,598
Hindustani	1,23,200
Sirmauri	1,11,391
Parji	1,09,401

The Indian Constitution has enumerated 14 languages in schedule VIII. It would be worth while to peruse the figures compiled after census enumeration in 1961. India is a country in name, but actually it has the complexities of a continent—as

regards the languages Unless this fact is realized and taken into consideration it would not be possible to appreciate the controversies which have been raging over the medium of instruction in the Indian universities All educationists have accepted the claim of education through the mother-tongue, regional language at the primary stage Even this bristles with problems in some of the States such as that of Nagaland 'The population of the State as estimated on 31st March 1962 was 3,70,000 and the area about 6,366 square miles The total number of boys in classes I to VIII was 32,036 and of girls 17,693—total 49,729 in this State As the figures given for area and population show the habitations are very scattered There are 833 villages Diverse tribes speaking as many as *seventeen major dialects* inhabit this area and it is a problem to find teachers, who can impart instructions in the mother-tongue of the pupil Another problem is to have text-books in the dialect of the pupil' The above excerpt from page 279 of the Progress of Compulsory Education in India during 1951-66 by the present author, has been given to show that teaching through the mother-tongue at even the primary stage is presenting problems The complications at the university level have intertwined and twisted themselves into a gordian knot as we shall presently see However before passing on to that, we must have a look at the following figures

Population according to languages with grouping of mother-tongues under each of them (figures are for 1961)

<i>Languages</i>	<i>Number Persons speaking</i>	
I Languages (inclusive of 380 mother tongues grouped under them) specified in schedule VIII of the Constitution	14	38 23,33,847
II ¹ Indian Languages (inclusive of 241 mother tongues grouped under them) having a strength of 5 lakh and over each other than those specified in schedule VIII of the Constitution	17	5,01 33,603
III ¹ Indian Languages (69 mother tongues grouped under 17 languages and 2 mother tongues without grouping) having a strength of 1 lakh to 5 lakh speakers each other than those specified in schedule VIII of the Constitution	19	42,21,292
IV ¹ Indian languages not covered above (total number of mother tongues 857 of them 244 are grouped under 60 languages, other mother tongues are without any grouping)	673	19 26 700
Non Indian Languages	103	3,15 466
<i>Total</i>	826	43,89,36,918*

I The mother tongue in II, III and IV includes 304 tribal languages

* This figure includes that of Sikkim, but excludes population (2,97 853) of that portion of NEFA where all India census schedule was not canvassed.

The population figure above is 43.89 crore for 1961. Since the figure for 1967 has crossed 51 crore, the above figures should be increased by 16 per cent to arrive at the present position.

However, we are more directly concerned with the enormity of the task that confronts the educationists and the politicians in solving the problem of the medium of higher education. The reorganization of the States on linguistic basis, in 1956, has been the commencing point of the language feuds. Even before some of the new States were born the birth-pains were tremendous and reverberated the land. There were language riots. Dr C. D. Deshmukh resigned from the union cabinet and erstwhile colleagues and comrades-in-arms had hard and bitter bits at each other at the highest level. In some parts of the country people fought the battle on lower plane and all kinds of atrocities and inhumanities were committed in Bombay under the eyes of those who have elevated the doctrine of non-violence to the level of gospel. Andhra was created after Shri Ramaputtulu died of prolonged fasting letting inose as his legacy, unbridled mob fury consuming public property of crores of rupees, which were set fire to, by uncontrolled and infuriated mobs, forming part of millions of Telugu speaking people who felt frustrated at being denied the status of a separate State for them. Mr Nehru fought to the last ditch, with his back against the wall. He then surrendered. He had the wonderful capacity of flexibility, which helped him keep himself at the helm, under foreign stresses and political strains. And then the division of already truncated Punjab (still not recovered from the 1947 bleeding, when it was cut into two) into Punjab and Haryana was achieved after tens of thousands of protagonists of Punjabi Suba had courted arrest and Sant Fateh Singh threatened self-immolation which shook the foundations of the union government. All these are mentioned in connection with the medium of instruction not as historical facts of academic interest, but as furnishing the background to the bitterness over the language issue—built up through the decade preceding 1967. Linguistic States have been formed but they have left behind the taste of gall and wormwood which persists and would persist through decades to come.

Our government have the wonderful capacity of overlooking festering sores, till the puss cells pass on increasingly into the political blood stream and then they apply the belated knife leading to gaping wounds which take unduly long periods to heal. The linguistic division of the States was a weapon devised by the Congress party to attack the British government with and that weapon has now rebounded on the present government bruising it in essential parts and cutting at the roots at places the loyalty of its party men.

One single largest factor which has been responsible for changing the political and educational history of India, has

been the unwise policy of throwing out of government the mighty Mr C Rajagopalachari. History at times changes its course due to small incidents. The great raging controversy of 'Hindi', 'No Hindi' which is spitting a thousand fires all over the country, the war-drums which are being beaten in the south against the domination of Hindi would all have been conspicuous by their absence if Shri C Rajagopalachari had not blessed the anti Hindi movement in the south. A view is that his is the master mind behind the anti Hindi movement. It was Shri C Rajagopalachari who planted (and if not actually planted tended and nurtured) the sapling of Hindi in the south. And it is Rajaji himself who has been the spear head of the anti Hindi movement.

Rajaji was thrown out by the ambitious Mr Nehru who did not like to have colleagues of his own stature or taller than him but believed and acted upon the statesman like acumen of grouping political pigmies around him with their feet not steady upon the electorate and inferior to him, so that he could lord over head and shoulders above them and kick them out at his sweet will. Giants like Rajaji were castigated and peeled out of politics as 'senile' non entities. But this single man showed his unpredictable boldness in giving birth to a new party and declared war on Nehru—his political philosophy, his foreign ideology, his professed truisms of sociology and bit them as hard and as frequently as time and occasion would permit and battered and shattered the Congress citadel with as many batons and beating sticks as he could gather and showed himself, even in his declining years, what a giant enfeebled in body but not enfeebled in mind could do to break up the defence lines of the party of which he had for the major portion of his life been an arch angel.

Now 'Language' has been one of the sticks, he has used to beat and batter the government with. 'No domination of Hindi' has been equated with 'No domination of North'. The hugbear of language domination is no longer confined to the field of education, it has leapt ferociously into the arena of politics upsetting all the apple carts of educational planning and political statehood.

Any stick was good enough for Rajaji to beat the government with and the language stick has been supple enough to beat without breaking bones. And once Shri Rajaji demonstrated its use millions from the south have taken it up and the contagion has spread to Bengal and erupted in States over unthought of claims and counter claims of Bengali, Assamese, Hindi, Punjabi and so on. 'Mischievous thou art afoot, take what course thou wilt!'

The repercussions have been deep and far reaching. English is being continued on as a link language for those States, which do not want Hindi. Steps to amend the Constitution are being taken to ensure that the vagaries of future governments' thinking might not undo the assurances given by the late Mr Nehru and

once the assurances are embodied in the Constitution, they would not be fiddled with

The language controversy has however done great harm to the cause of education. The medium of instruction in the universities has become the arena of tug of war between the educationists on one side of the rope and the politicians on the other. Before discussing the problem (it is not just a problem but has become a riddle) we would like to give particulars of the medium of instruction at the various universities a few years back

<i>University</i>	<i>Medium of Instruction</i>
Agra	English and Hindi in B A , M A , B Com , M Com , B T , LL B , and B Sc (Ag) , English in others
Aligarh	English Hindi and Urdu in P U C (arts, commerce) B A , B Com , English in others
Allahabad	English and Hindi in B A , M A , B Sc (chem) , B Com , M Com English in others
Aodhra	English
Anoamalai	English
Baoaras Hindu	English and Hindi in B A , M A , B Com , B Ed , LL B , English in others
Bagalore	Same as at Mysore (see below)
Baroda	English
Bhagalpur	Hindi for P U C. (arts, science commerce), B A , B Com , B Sc , English, Bengali, Oriya and Urdu are also allowed with special permission. English for other degrees
Bihar	Hindi, Urdu, Bengali and English in P U C (arts, commerce, science), B A , B Sc , B Com , English in others
Bombay	English
Burdwan	English and Bengali
Calcutta	English
Delhi	English and Hindi in B A (Pass), English in others
Dibrugarh	English
Gauhati	English
Gorakhpur	English and Hindi for under graduate courses, English in others
Gujrat	Gujarati, Hindi and English
Indore	Same as at Jabalpur
Jabalpur	Hindi and English for B A , B Sc (home science), B Com , English in others
Jadavpur	Bengali in preparatory (arts) English in others

<i>University</i>	<i>Medium of Instruction</i>
Jivaji University	Same as at Jahalpur
Jammu & Kashmir	English
Jodhpur	English and Hindi
Kalyani	English
Kanpur	Same as at Lucknow.
Karnatak	English
Kerala	English
Kurukshetra	English, Hindi and Punjabi for B A and B A. (Hons), English in others
Lucknow	Hindi in B A, B Sc, B Com, English in others
Madras	English in some colleges Tamil is used for B A course.
Madurai	Same as at Madras
Magadh	Hindi upto degree standard, English for others
Marathwada	English
Meerut	Same as at Agra
Mysore	English and Kannada
Nagpur	English, Hindi and Marathi in P U C (arts, science, commerce), B A, B Sc., English in others
North Bengal	English
Osmania	English, Hindi, Urdu and Telugu.
Panjab	English, Panjabi, Hindi, Urdu in P U C. (arts, commerce), B A, and B Com, English in others
Patna	Hindi upto graduate standard, English in others
Poona	English and Marathi for B A, B Com., B Ed., Diploma in teaching, English in others
Punjab	Hindi, Panjabi or English for B A.; English in others
Rabindra Bharati	Bengali, English in allowed to foreign students
Rajasthan	English and Hindi
Ranchi	Hindi in P U C, B A, B Sc, B Com, English in others
Ravishankar	Hindi and English for B A, B Sc (Home Science), B Com, English in others
Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidyapeeth	English for B Sc (dairy tech) and B.Sc (vet), English, Gujarati and Hindi in others.
Saugor	Hindi and English for B A, B Sc (home science), B Com, English for others
Saurashtra	Hindi, Gujarati and English.
Shivaji	English and Marathi.
Shri Vankatashwar	English

<i>University</i>	<i>Medium of Instruction</i>
S N D T	Gujarati, Marathi and Hindi for B A , Gujarati, Marathi and English for B Sc (home science) Gujarati and Marathi for M A , B Ed and M Ed English in others
South Gujarat	Gujarati, Hindi and English
Udaipur	English and Hindi
Utkal	English
Vikram	English and Hindi
Vishwa Bharati	English or Bengali for B A (Hons) , English for others
Gujarat Vidya Peeth	Gujarati and Hindi
Gurukul Kangri	Hindi

Institutions deemed to be Universities Under Section 3 of U G C Act 1956

Indian Institute of Science	English
Indian School of International Studies	English
Jamia Milia Islamia	Urdu but in some cases Hindi and English are allowed
Kashi Vidya Peeth	Hindi
Tata Schools of Social Science	English

Above have been given particulars of medium of instruction in some of the universities and the constituent and affiliated colleges. In this report covering eleven years 1956-67 perhaps a separate chapter would not have been necessary to discuss the language—through which instruction was imparted or should be imparted. But as the situation is the language problem has become a bone of contention and assumed such an unhealthy importance that the virus of political propaganda and factionalism has not only spread in the educational bodies but has completely permeated the entire academic outlook and jaundiced the perspective of even those leaders who were expected to examine the issue dispassionately and objectively in the best interests of education.

The educationists are pitched against the politicians and the latter are coming out the better of it. It is not our purpose here to drift into the field of politics for we propose to confine ourselves to the domain of education alone, but where the impact of outside factors impinges adversely on the growth and development of teaching we have unwillingly to refer to them. Some of

these factors, unfortunately, reflect a set of circumstances, which we would have left severely alone but we had to refer to them because they affect adversely the quality of teaching, learning and the number of students receiving higher education in social sciences

Below is being given an excerpt from the memorandum to the Education Commission (1964-66) by the hon'ble Shri Morarji Desai (now Deputy Prime Minister, India)

"It is a matter of great regret that the universal principle of mother tongue as the medium of instruction has also been made the subject of controversy. Education at all stages in all branches must be given through the mother-tongue. If we agree that it should be so in elementary and secondary education, how can we expect a student to grasp the subject in higher education through a medium of foreign language. There has been a tremendous waste of the energies of our younger generation on account of the burden of the medium of a foreign language. It is criminal to allow this to continue for a long time. The commission should, therefore, draw up a schedule of systematic switching over to regional languages and/or Hindi as a medium of instruction in our higher education. No exception should be made to any particular branch of learning, like science or technology or medicine. If the principle of mother tongue as a medium of instruction is sound for one branch of learning it cannot be unsound for another branch. If standards of education are not judged merely by the expression of English, as is being done today, the standard of understanding and expression in the mother tongue and Hindi will definitely go up when the mother tongue is the medium of instruction."

The following is the summary record of the evidence of Dr C D Deshmukh, Vice Chancellor, Delhi University, before the Education Commission on the 5th April, 1965

- (i) *Language Policy* Dr Deshmukh pointed out that universities exist in a social environment and students passing out of universities must develop a capacity to translate most of their concepts into their local language. This should be possible only if they were taught to think in their own language. He, therefore, expressed himself in favour of regional languages as the medium of instruction at the university stage. He was of the opinion that identical scientific and technical terms should be adopted by the different regional languages of India, as this would make for greater similarity between them as this part of the vocabulary of new knowledge grows. Students should, however, be familiar with English and there should be ample time for teaching English at the school and college stage so that they could keep in touch with current developments in the world, benefit from talks by visiting professors etc. and also be able to follow the written works of distinguished scholars in English.

- (ii) During the transitional period, both English and regional languages should continue to be the media of instruction. Dr. Deshmukh pointed out that no university could afford to have two sets of faculty—one for English and the other for regional languages. We would therefore have to adopt a sort of mixed approach—viz. teaching in English and leaving the students free to answer in English or in any other language as they like. He was of opinion that most of the students were deficient in regard to writing good and correct English. So if they could be given an option to write their answers in Hindi or any other regional language, they would not mind being taught in English.

The Kothari Commission took into consideration a number of memoranda submitted by a number of responsible politicians and eminent educationists and the findings of the Commission on the language issue have been recorded in paras 149 to 162 of their report. As language has a close and direct bearing on teaching of social sciences, in Indian universities, their findings are given below for easy reference.

Excerpts from the Report

- 149 *Evolution of a Language Policy* The development of a proper language policy can also assist materially in social and national integration. Of the many problems which the country has faced since independence the language question has been one of the most complex and intractable and it still continues to be so. Its early and satisfactory solution is imperative for a variety of reasons, educational, cultural and political.

150 *Development of Modern Indian Languages* It is hardly necessary to emphasize that the development of the Indian languages is both urgent and essential for the development of the Indian people and as a way of bringing together the elite and the masses. It can make scientific and technical knowledge more easily accessible to people in their own languages and thus help not only in the progress of industrialization but also in the wider dissemination of science and the scientific outlook. Energetic action is needed to produce books and literature particularly scientific and technical, in the regional languages. This should be regarded as a specific and imperative responsibility of the universities, and the UGC should provide general guidance and allot adequate funds for the programme.

151 *Medium of Education at School and College* The development of the modern Indian languages is inextricably linked with the place given to them in the educational system specially at the university stage. The medium selected should enable students to acquire knowledge with facility, to express themselves with clarity

1 The number referred to in the beginning of each paragraph refers to the number of paragraph of the Kothari Commission Report.

and add to think with precision and vigour. From this point of view, the claims of the mother tongue are pre-eminently. About thirty years ago, delivering the convocation address of the Calcutta University, Rabindra Nath Tagore had expressed his views on this matter in so uncertain terms:

"In no country in the world, except India, is to be seen this divorce of the language of education from the language of the pupil. Full hundred years have not elapsed since Japan took its initiation into Western culture. At the outset she had to take recourse to textbooks written in foreign languages, but from the very first, her objective had been to arrive at the stage of reading freely over the subjects of study in the language of the country. It was because Japan had recognized the need of such studies, not as an ornament for a select section of her citizens, but for giving power and culture to all of them, that she deemed it to be of prime importance to make them universally available to her people. And in this effort of Japan to gain proficiency in the Western arts and sciences, which were to give her the means of self-defence against the predatory cupidity of foreign powers, to qualify her to take an honoured place in the comity of nations, no trouble or expense was spared. Least of all was there the miserly folly of keeping such learning out of easy reach, within the confines of a foreign language."

Learning through a foreign medium compels the students to concentrate on cramming instead of mastering the subject matter. Moreover, as a matter of sound educational policy, the medium of education in school and higher education should generally be the same. Prior to 1937 the position was at least consistent. English was the medium both in the upper stages of school and in college education. As we have rightly adopted the regional languages as the media of education at the school stage, it follows that we should adopt them increasingly at the higher stage also.

152 This proposal has also been supported strongly as a measure to promote social and national integration. The Emotional Integration Committee was of the view that the use of regional languages as media of education from the lowest to the highest stage of education was a matter of 'profound importance for national integration'. This was supported by the National Integration Council (June, 1962) which said: 'The change in the medium of instruction is justified not so much by cultural or political sentiments as on the very important academic consideration of facilitating grasp and understanding of the subject matter. Further, India's university men will be unable to make their maximum possible contribution to the advancement of learning generally and science and technology in particular, unless there is a continuous means of communication in the shape of the regional languages between its masses, its artisans and technicians and its university men. The development of the talent latent in

the country will also, in the view of the Council, be retarded unless regional languages are employed as media of instruction at the university stage" We generally agree with these observations

1.53 It has been sometimes argued that there should be a single medium of education at the university stage—English for the time being, to be ultimately substituted by Hindi—on the ground that it would promote mobility of teachers and students from one part of the country to another, provide for easy communication between academic and professional men and administrators, further intellectual co-operation amongst the universities and help in other ways in developing a corporate intellectual life in the country. We are inclined to think, on a balance of considerations, that this solution is not feasible. In practice, it will probably mean the indefinite continuance of English as the only medium of education in higher education, a development that we cannot support in the larger interests of the country. The adoption of Hindi as a common medium of education in all parts of India is not possible for some years to come and, in non-Hindi areas, it will still have some of the disadvantages associated with the use of a foreign medium and is likely to be resisted. It would, therefore, be unwise to strive to reverse the present trend for the adoption of the regional languages as media of education at the university stage and to insist on the use of a common medium in higher education throughout the country.

1.54. To sum up :

- (i) We are convinced of the advantages of education through the regional languages. We regard the development of regional languages as vital to the general progress of the country, and as an important step towards the improvement of quality in education. To avoid any misunderstanding we would emphasize that this does not mean the shutting out of English, or other world languages. In fact we will profit from these languages all the more when our education becomes more effective and useful.
- (ii) In view of the importance of the problem, we suggest that the UGC and the universities carefully work out a feasible programme suitable for each university or group of universities. The change over should take place as early as possible and, in any case, within about ten years since the problem will only become more complex and difficult with the passage of time. A large programme of producing the needed literature in the Indian languages will have to be undertaken; and adequate arrangements will have to be made for the training and retraining of teachers.
- (iii) What is required is to formulate a clear policy to express it in unambiguous terms, and to follow it up with firm, bold and imaginative action. We should avoid a policy of drift.

which will only be harmful. Nor should we get involved in the vicious circle of 'no production because no demand' and 'no demand because no production'.

- (iv) We recognize that suitable safeguards would have to be devised, in the traditional stage, to prevent any lowering of standards during the process of change over because of inadequate preparation. In fact the desirability and success of the change should be judged in terms of the contribution it makes to raising the quality of education. But caution should not be equated to delay or procrastination. It is meaningful only if it is part of a policy of determined, deliberate and vigorous action.

1 55 There will, however, be one important exception to this general rule, namely, all India institutions which admit, in considerable numbers, students from different parts of the country. These now use English as the medium of education, which should continue undisturbed for the time being. A change over to Hindi may be considered in due course provided two conditions are fulfilled. The first is the effective development of Hindi as a medium of education at this level. This is a matter which can be left to the UGC and the institutions concerned to decide. The second is the equally important political consideration that, in such a change over, the chances of students from non-Hindi areas should not be adversely affected and that the proposal should have the support of the non Hindi States. The latter principle has been already conceded by the Government of India even in the larger sphere of the use of Hindi in official communications between the States and the Centre.

1 56. Simultaneously, it is necessary to make the regional languages the official languages of the regions concerned as early as possible so that higher services are not 'de facto' barred to those who study in the regional medium. The acceptance of the regional languages as media at the university is much more likely when good employment which now depends largely on a knowledge of English and is more easily open to students who have studied through English, becomes available to those who have studied through the regional medium. We might also add here that though Urdu is not a regional language in the ordinary sense of the word, it has an all India significance since it is spoken by certain sections of the people in different parts of the country. Due encouragement must be given to it at all stages not only because of this peculiar character but also because of its close links with the official language, Hindi.

1 57 *Channels of International Communication* The introduction of the regional languages as media of education should not be interpreted to mean under rating the importance of English in the university. For a successful completion of the first degree course, a student should possess an adequate command over English, be

able to express himself in it with reasonable ease and felicity, understand lectures in it and avail himself of its literature. Therefore, adequate emphasis will have to be laid on its study as a language right from the school stage. English should be the most useful 'Library language' in higher education and our most significant window of the world. It is also important to encourage the study of other foreign languages on a more extensive scale for a variety of academic and practical purposes. Russian has a special significance for the study of science and technology in the present day world.¹ In addition, French, German, Japanese, Spanish and Chinese are important world languages of communication and for acquiring knowledge and culture. We recommend that all universities, some selected colleges and also a small proportion of carefully selected schools should provide for the teaching of these languages. The knowledge of another foreign language (especially Russian) besides English should be a requirement for a doctorate degree, and in certain subjects, even for the Master's degree.

1.58 The country will need, in increasing numbers a small but extremely proficient group of persons in important foreign languages and their literature. From this point of view, it would be necessary to establish a few schools which will begin teaching, right from an early age, important foreign languages referred to above and use them also as media of education. The admission to these schools should be on a selective basis and there should be an adequate provision of scholarships.

1.59 It would be an important step towards the general development of higher education, and also towards international co-operation and understanding, if there were established a small number of institutions, at university level, with some of the important 'world languages' as media of education. A beginning has already been made with the Institute of Russian Studies at New Delhi. It would be desirable to set up, during the fourth plan, institutions on somewhat similar lines in German, French, Spanish and Japanese languages. We could also establish one or two more institutions in Russian. The institutions will have to be largely residential. It will be an advantage to have them as constituent units of universities in their neighbourhood.

1.60 *Channels of Internal Communication* Hindi (or any other Indian language for that matter) must be greatly developed and enriched before it can attain the status of a library language, that is, a language which can serve as a vehicle for acquiring a substantial part of the current and rapidly expanding stock of world knowledge. This has to be taken into account fully in determining our language policy. This implies, as stated earlier, that every graduate will need to acquire a reasonable proficiency

¹ It is interesting to note that the number of students studying Russian in the U.K. is larger than that of the students studying Russian in India.

in a library language, which will be English for most students. It will thus serve as a link-language in higher education for academic work and intellectual inter-communication.

1.61. It is, however, equally obvious that English cannot serve as the link-language for the majority of our people. It is only Hindi which can and should take this place in due course. As it is the official language of the Union and the link-language of the people, all measures should be adopted to spread it in the non-Hindi areas. The success of this programme will largely depend on the extent to which it is voluntarily accepted by the people of these areas. We are interested to know that in the Kerala University, where students can take Hindi in place of Malayalam at the undergraduate stage, a larger proportion of students choose to study Hindi. We have also seen increasing evidence on the part of non Hindi areas to take to the study of Hindi. All their efforts in this matter, particularly in the non official sector, should receive encouragement.

1.62. In addition to Hindi, it is essential to provide multiple channels of inter-State Communication in all modern Indian languages. In every linguistic region, there should be a number of persons who know all the other modern Indian languages and some who are familiar with their literatures and able to contribute to them. For this purpose, we recommend that there should be adequate arrangements, both in schools and colleges, for teaching different modern Indian languages. In addition, steps should be taken to establish strong departments in some of the modern Indian languages in every university. It may also be advisable to create a small number of special institutes (or advanced centres) for the comparative study of different languages and their linguistic problems. At the B.A. and M.A. levels, it should be possible to combine two modern Indian languages. This will incidentally supply the bilingual persons needed for language teaching in schools and colleges.

11.58 *The Medium of Education* • The problem of teaching and evaluation in higher education is inextricably linked with the medium of education and examination. It was pointed out earlier that, as a part of the development of education in our country, we have to move energetically in the direction of adopting the regional languages as media of education at the university stage that careful preparation should be made for the purpose that both the manner and the time of transition would have to be left for decision to the university system. We shall now deal with some other aspects of the problem from the point of view of practical implementation.

- (i) We would like to emphasize that the medium of classroom communication and examination should generally be the same. The present arrangement under which a large proportion of students, at the first degree stage and

even later, use the regional language for purposes of examinations although the classroom instruction is given through the medium of English, is educationally unsatisfactory. If the student can be expected to express himself in the regional language in his examination, it should not normally be difficult for a teacher to do the same in the classroom. In fact, the student's understanding of the fundamental problems and issues would be better and his performances in the examination would improve if, in all cases where the universities have taken a decision to adopt the regional languages as media of examinations, they also decide to adopt them as normal media of classroom communication. However, it must be remembered that the hold of English as a medium in the universities is linked with the use of the regional languages as the languages of administration in the States. So long as the prize posts in administration go to students who have good command over English, it will not be surprising if a substantial proportion of students continue to prefer education given through it.

- (ii) While the goal is to adopt the regional languages as media of education, we should like to stress again that this does not involve elimination of English. In fact, English, as an important library language, would play a vital role in higher education. No student should be considered as qualified for a degree, in particular, a Master's degree, unless he has acquired a reasonable proficiency in English (or in some other library language). The implications of this are two fold: all teachers in higher education should be essentially bilingual in the sense that they would be able to teach in the regional language and in English, and all students (and, particularly post-graduate students) should be able to follow lectures and use reading materials in the regional languages, as well as in English.
- (iii) Great care has to be taken to ensure that the progress of the student entering the university is hampered as little as possible by complexities relating to the media of education. In a student's life, the change from school to college is a crucial stage. On entering college, he finds that there is a greater demand on his powers of understanding and concentration than at school. When to this is added the difficulty inherent in a sudden change in the medium of education it is not to be wondered at that many students feel bewildered and lost and lose zest in their studies. At the earlier stage of the undergraduate course, it will be an advantage if the bulk of the class work is done through the regional language. As one goes higher up the educational ladder and as the student's

command over English and his familiarity with its use as a medium of education increases, more and more of the class work could be in English. At the postgraduate stage, at least for some time to come, the bulk of the class work will have to be in English.

- (iv) To safeguard the interest of minorities, some special steps would be needed. The maintenance of colleges teaching through the medium of Hindi in the non Hindi speaking areas or of Urdu (which is not a regional language in the sense the other modern Indian languages are) in any part of the country should not only be permitted but encouraged. In so far as colleges teaching through the media of modern Indian languages other than the regional language of the area are concerned there need be no obligation on the State to provide such institutions, except in cases where an adequate number of students is available. But if any linguistic minority group offers to maintain such an institution, it should be permitted and admissible grants given to it.
- (v) As we have recommended earlier, it would be desirable to establish centres of advanced study for the development of modern Indian languages so as to make them fit media for higher education. These should include two centres for Urdu—one in the North and one in the South.

11.59 We are definitely of the view that at the university stage no language should be made a compulsory subject of study but the classical and modern languages of India and important foreign languages should be provided as elective subjects. As we have recommended elsewhere, there should be considerable flexibility with regard to the choice of the subjects. The compulsory study of a language is likely to make some useful combination of subjects impracticable by placing too heavy a burden on the students. We were concerned to find that in one big university about 50 per cent of the total time available for education at the undergraduate stage was devoted to the study of languages only. It is obvious that under such conditions, the studies of the principal subjects greatly suffer and standards remain low.

11.60 Since an adequate command over a library language is indispensable for a university student, we recommend that adequate facilities should be provided in universities and colleges for the study of English and where necessary or possible, for other library languages also. For this purpose, we recommend the following:

- (i) Special units for teaching English should be established in university and colleges whose main objective would be to give a good working knowledge of English to new entrants by the adoption of modern teaching techniques and in as short a time as possible. A distinction has to be made

between the teaching of English as a skill and the teaching of English literature. The teachers in this unit will, therefore, need special training on the lines of the pioneer work being done at the Central Institute of English at Hyderabad. Moreover, it has to be noted that the students who enter the universities will be at different levels of attainment in English. Some will have come from English-medium schools and be well advanced. Others who come from urban schools with, comparatively speaking, good facilities for teaching English would be at an average level. But a large number who would have come from rural areas or the weaker schools will be at a much lower level of attainment. No single course in English would meet the needs of all these students. It should, therefore, be a responsibility of the English units to adjust their teaching to the needs of the different categories of students and to ensure that they are all given at least that essential command over the language which will enable them to use it efficiently as a library language. While the facilities should be provided in all institutions so far as possible, it should be optional for each student to decide the course he would take to meet his needs or even take no course at all, if his preparation at school stage is found to be adequate.

- (ii) It would be an advantage to teach some English as a part of the elective subject course in the first year of the undergraduate stage. For example, students of economics may study English for about two periods a week as a part of their course in the first year. The object of this teaching would be to introduce the students to literature in economics in English, to the special vocabulary used in the subject and to help them to read with comprehension books and journals in English in their special field. Where such courses have been tried, they have proved quite helpful and have enabled the student to use English as a library language in his own field far more efficiently than a general English course would do.
- (iii) While English is our most important library language, it is necessary, as we have repeatedly stressed in this report, to develop other important library languages also. Much greater attention should therefore, be given to the teaching of library languages other than English than is the case at present. In particular, we stress the immediate need to study Russian on a large scale.

11.61 In major universities, it will be necessary, as a rule, to adopt English as the medium of education because their students and teachers will be drawn on an all-India basis. This is the only feasible approach if their all-India character is to be maintained. But we are not opposed to the possibility of some university,

which has the necessary quality of staff and students, trying this experiment in a regional language. We realise that this will involve some difficulties in drawing their students and teachers on an all India basis but we are convinced that they can be overcome. The position can be reviewed in due course as the linguistic situation develops."

Here end the observations of the Education Commission. More than a year has elapsed since the report was out. Since then the question of medium of instruction has been engaging the attention of the Government and the public alike. We are giving below the latest position.

Current Thinking on Language

The recommendations of the Kothari Commission have had already to pass many hurdles and may have to face many more, before they are implemented in the form they have been made in the Commission's report or in modified form. It cannot be said whether the Parliament would be satisfied only with minor modifications or entirely change the very structure of the language formulae. How the current of public opinion has been blowing will be evident from the following account.

(i) A three day seminar of teachers and educationists was held at Patna from 12th to 14th April 1967. The seminar supported the view that English should be optional from class VI to the end of the secondary stage in all schools. At the university stage only one language be taught, namely, the regional language.

(ii) On 14th April 1967 at Madras the Union Education Minister, Dr Triguna Sen, participating in a function organised for the release of Tamil books, congratulated the Madras Government on its efforts to make the regional language Tamil as medium of instruction in colleges also. He expressed the hope that its efforts now confined to humanities would extend to science and technology also in colleges. He said that he was a firm believer in making the mother tongue as the medium of instruction from the primary school to the university stage, otherwise standards would not rise. Knowledge will not spread and the gap between the educated and the common man will be widened. He hoped that Madras which had pioneered in free education and free midday meals scheme would take a lead in making the mother tongue as medium of instruction at all stages. Chief Minister C N Annadurai, who released 22 works in Tamil brought out by the Bureau of Tamil Publications, said that love for one's own mother tongue should not be mistaken for fanaticism. The love of Tamil was not based on hatred of any other language. He appealed to the centre to see that none of their actions relating to the language issue created doubts or suspicions in the minds of Tamilians, who considered their mother tongue more than God. Encouraging development of every language

would enhance the prestige of the country, he said. Speaking on the greatness of Tamil language the Chief Minister said the language required no further development as it was fully developed but the development was required in the minds of the people, to understand and enjoy the rich heritage of the language. He advised the bureau not to confine its activities to translate works in other languages into Tamil but see that original works were produced in the mother-tongue, utilising the specialised knowledge of experts in each subject.

(iii) *The Education Committee of M Ps* A special committee of the members of Parliament on education held sittings at Delhi in the last week of April 1967 and deliberated upon the weighty language issue. The M Ps' Committee on education, which includes leaders of all major parties unanimously recommended on 24th April 1967, a new language formula under which a child will be required to study upto high school his mother-tongue and one other language which may be any language included in the eighth schedule of the Constitution or English or any other language.

Only one language was recommended to be studied during the first four or five years of the 10 year school course and the second language was sought to be introduced, thereafter. The recommendation was that from class VIII a student might, if he so desired, take a third language of his choice as an optional subject. Special facilities were suggested to enable linguistic minorities to study in their languages at all levels. The new formula was thus expected to remove all elements of compulsion regarding the study of English, Hindi or even the regional language and was calculated to offer to students the widest possible choice of languages. It was also expected to remove the strain of having to study a third language.

The protagonists of Hindi appeared to be persuaded to accept the formula because they saw in it an element of motivation that would have gradually introduced the non-Hindi people to study Hindi. They apparently felt that since Hindi would be the official language in a large part of the country and also the official language of the union together with English, the non-Hindi people would eventually learn it voluntarily to facilitate inter-State communication and to equip themselves for jobs to regions outside their own.

Time Limit

A time limit of five years was suggested by the committee for the change over to the regional languages as the media of education in universities both at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. In its resolution on language, the committee also suggested that it should be an objective of national policy to maintain college teaching through Hindi medium in non Hindi areas. This was

expected to meet the needs of minorities "and of those who desire such education" These colleges were advised to maintain good standards and were to receive assistance directly from the centre. The committee also pointed out that there would always be need in the country for all-India institutions that would admit students from all parts of the country and that these would serve as a means of integration, and were advised to use Hindi and English as the media of education. The committee also suggested a "large scale and imaginative programme" for producing literature in all languages with central help and that these languages should use common terminology.

The committee provided special safeguards for linguistic minorities so that their children could study in their own languages. The committee stated "that parents have the right to claim primary education in the mother-tongue of their child and every effort should be made to meet this demand."

State Education Ministers' Conference

(iv) The above conclusions, however, proved to be 'still born and may be termed the 'First Act'. The language controversy and the deliberations thereon have taken quick and sharp turns at the various stages. For only after a couple of days, on 28th April 1967, Dr. Triguna Sen, the Union Education Minister, proposed a reconsideration of earlier decisions on the three language formula as they "had been dominated more by political than by educational consideration". He told the State Education Ministers' Conference held at Delhi that the language load at the high school stage took up 45 to 55 per cent of the total time available. "If educational standards are to be improved, we have to reduce the language load in school studies", Dr. Sen added. He conceded that this was a "controversial issue" but urged that it be solved quickly and satisfactorily. Dr. Sen said, "the existing priorities in education should be reversed to evolve a significant programme" for immediate action which could be incorporated in the revised budgets for 1967-68.

He said the reconstruction of education covered three aspects: (i) transformation, (ii) improvement of quality, and (iii) expansion and added that so far highest priority had been accorded to programmes of expansion. He regretted that the programme of qualitative improvement had received comparatively less attention and also those which would help transform the educational system and relate it more closely to the life needs and aspirations of the people had generally been neglected. "This expansion of an inappropriate and feeble system has created several problems", he added. Dr. Sen said while expansion may have to continue in under-developed areas in primary education and in the education of girls or of children from the backward classes, much restraint should be exercised in the expansion of

secondary education and collegiate education in arts, and commerce and in the establishment of new secondary schools, colleges and universities

Serious differences in the views of States The State Education Ministers Conference on 28th April 1967, did not help resolve the gordian knot developed round the language issue. Discord was the order of the day and no common agreement was reached on the status of Hindi, the three language formula or even the teaching of the mother tongue in primary schools. The ministers concentrated their fire on the variety of language formulae that had been mooted. There was a broad polarisation of opinion on this subject, with Hindi speaking States favouring a two language formula and the other States crusading for a three language formula. A number of Hindi speaking States expressed the fear that there would be chaos if the study of Hindi was not made compulsory at some stage. The Hindi speaking cohorts stuck to this point of view but the Education Minister of Madras, Mr Neduncheshtau stood firm against this stand.

The leader of the DMK parliamentary party Mr Ambazhagan took the offensive and accused the Hindi States of attempting to dominate the non Hindi areas. The statement drew loud protests from the Hindi speaking ministers and an escalation of the conflict seemed imminent until the Maharashtra Education Minister reminded the contestants that the Education Ministers' Conference was not the floor of Parliament.

The attack on English which was initiated by some Hindi speaking ministers was masterminded by the Bihar Education Minister. He said that a two language formula was the most workable but that English should not be made the second language in Hindi speaking States. The Haryana Education Minister was, by comparison, extremely liberal in his attitude to English. Proposing that the mother tongue should be taught at the primary stage, he suggested that the second language to be taught at the secondary school could be English in Hindi speaking areas. The Bihar Education Minister, Mr Karpoori Thakur, claimed that the three language formula had proved to be a failure. Although it had been successful in some States, he said that "honesty demands that we should accept the failure." He felt that in the light of past mistakes a two language formula was the obvious solution. He went as far as to say that there was general support for the bilingual formula. But he was speedily disillusioned by a chorus of non Hindi ministers, all of whom came out strongly in favour of the three languages.

The Gujarat Education Minister said that a two language formula would only make confusion worse confounded. His State had adopted the three language formula and he saw no reason to abandon the founding. The Education Ministers of three southern states—Andhra, Mysore and Kerala also lent strong support to the three language formula. The ministers took

the line that Hindi should be included for study as a link language, but they could not even contemplate banishing English, hence their plea for English, Hindi and the regional language. The Education Ministers of Assam and Maharashtra also came out in favour of English and the three language formula. But while the former was categorical in championing the cause of English, the latter was distinctly apprehensive. The Maharashtra representative said that the mother tongue should be taught in the primary stage and Hindi should be included from the first to seventh class. He felt that both Hindi and English should be taught from the seventh to the eleventh classes. But in the same breath he said that the centre should stop giving importance to English in day-to-day administration. The Assam representative's argument in favour of English was based on the conditions in the hill areas of his State. He pointed out that the medium of instruction in schools in the hill areas was English and that therefore higher education should also be provided through the English medium. The Manipur Education Minister too took the line of the Assam Minister and stated that the eleven colleges in Manipur were affiliated to the Gauhati University and therefore the considerations which applied to Assam also applied to Manipur and advocated that the three language formula be persevered with.

But the Delhi representative Mr. Vijay Kumar Malhotra reiterated the stand of Hindi speaking States that a bilingual formula was necessary. He also supported the demand of Hindi areas that English should be abolished as a compulsory language.

The representatives of Orissa and Goa struck a new note by stating that they could not accept the scheme to have all primary schools teaching in the mother tongue. The Orissa Minister explained that the people of his State spoke in a myriad of dialects, thus making it impossible to impart primary education in the mother tongue. It was necessary to impose the common primary language on them. Indeed, he felt, it was necessary to impose three languages on them, including Hindi and English.

The Goa Education Minister stated that there were no less than eight languages which were widely spoken in his domain and echoed the sentiments of his Orissa counterpart. Although the largest section of the Goans spoke Marathi, 25,000 students had already declared that English was their mother-tongue. If the mother tongue idea was adopted, he feared that a number of students would demand to be taught in Portuguese. Apart from French. Hence it was necessary to impose a common language on all students.

The Kashmir Education Minister was the sole representative of non Hindi States to declare himself in favour of the two language formula.

Decisions Taken and Reversed

(v) On 30th April 1967 the Union Education Minister succeeded in turning the deliberations to his point of view. The State Education Ministers' Conference recommended that "*education at all levels and in all fields*" including technology and medicine be given in the regional language. The consensus was that every effort be made to complete the change over in five years but "*as a minimum programme it should be completed at undergraduate level during this period*". This was the decision arrived at the concluding session of the conference. It recommended adequate safeguards for linguistic minorities, including the people of the hill districts, who have adopted English as the medium of education. The conference appealed to the centre to give liberal assistance for a major programme to produce the necessary literature in the regional languages.

The Union Education Minister (who presided over the State Education Ministers' Conference), Dr. Sen stated in his concluding remarks that the decision should be implemented vigorously and that in the vigorous implementation lay the key to the solution of the current controversy over the three language formula, and once the regional languages were accepted as the media of education and public examinations, "our entire thinking on the language issue will change and we shall find that an agreement on the three language formula is round the corner".

Committee Having failed to come to an agreement over the three language formula the State Education Ministers' Conference appointed a nine-man committee of the Education Ministers of Haryana, Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Madras, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal to try to evolve an agreed formula, and submit its report.

Summing up the deliberations on the subject, Dr. Sen said in his concluding speech that there was almost total agreement among them that a child in India should study three languages in the following order of priority: his mother tongue, the official language of the union "which is and can be only Hindi" and a "library language" which would open out a window on the world "the most important of which is English".

Outlining the difference, he said that "some of us are not yet prepared to accept Hindi as the sole official language of the union or any compulsion for its study. Some others are not yet prepared to make the study of English compulsory at any stage. He explained that these extreme positions were a "passing phase". They were not borne out by the prevailing practice in the different areas where both English and Hindi were regularly taught regardless of the attitude of the hard liners.

West Bengal's View

(i) The language issue as it emerged from the State Education Ministers Conference was no longer one between three languages and two languages but between Hindi and English. Mr Jyoti Bhushan Bhattacharya Education Minister West Bengal stated at a press conference against being too hasty in the introduction of Hindi as a compulsory link language. Mr Bhattacharya was quite clear in his mind about the immediate and long term needs of his State. In the immediate future he felt that Bengali should be the first language and English should be the second. Both should be compulsory. Hindi may be an optional language from classes VIII to X.

He stated that English would be necessary till Bengali was prepared to take over the burden of education in the higher classes at university level. For this students would have to be taught English at school. He did not think it would be wise to over load the students with too many languages. Hindi could, therefore, be an optional language during the last three years of school.

Mr Bhattacharya made it clear that he was not opposed to Hindi at all. What he suggested was the gradual withering away of English as it went out of use. In the meantime Hindi, if it had to be a link language for official and commercial purposes as well as a language of intelligent communication between the people of different regions, must enrich its vocabulary from various Indian and foreign languages. For the present, Mr Bhattacharya explained, my hands are too full with the task of preparing Bengali to take over from English as the medium of university education.

(ii) Dr Triguna Sen has been reiterating that the three language formula is not academically sound even if it may be so politically. It would impose an additional burden on young people who would learn none of the languages properly. Besides the element of compulsion was likely to be resented. Dr Sen felt that adequate scope should be available to develop all regional languages. The primary emphasis on education should be laid on one's mother tongue with English coming next in importance.

Decision Reversed

(iii) Notwithstanding the deliberations of the M P s' Education Committee and the State Education Ministers Conference (referred to in paras (ii) to (v) above) the centre proposes to hold fast to the three language formula. There has undoubtedly been some embarrassment in top government circles over the manner in which Dr Triguna Sen became party to the decision to replace the three language formula by a two language formula. But apparently the attempt of the Prime Minister and her colleagues is to straighten out the matter without adding to the controversy.

and the complications that have already been created. Consequently it has been said that Dr Sen and other advocates of the two language formula tended to look at the problem exclusively from the educationist's point of view and overlooked both the elaborate background to the decision on the three language formula as well as the profound political implications.

The three language formula, it is pointed out, was the result of thorough going discussions dating back to 1961 when the State Chief Ministers first formally adopted it. At that time all State Chief Ministers belonged to the Congress party but the formula was later endorsed by an all-party forum—the National Integration Council. In 1963, when the Official Languages Bill was passed by Parliament, the three language formula was powerfully reiterated by both Mr Nehru and Mr Shastri. In 1965, after the unfortunate language riots in South India, the three language formula was again accepted as one of the main ingredients of the national consensus on education by the conference of the State Chief Ministers.

According to the union government, the three language formula is one of the three ingredients of the language policy, the other two being the proposed bill to give effect to Mr Nehru's assurance on the continuance of English as an alternative official language along with Hindi and the use of all the 14 regional languages as media of the UPSC* examinations.

According to the three language formula (a) students in non Hindi areas have to learn the (i) regional language, (ii) Hindi and (iii) English

(b) students in Hindi States have to learn (i) Hindi, (ii) an additional Indian language in order to establish equality of treatment between Hindi-speaking and non-Hindi speaking people and (iii) English

This is more a political decision than a sound educational one. The entire matter of medium of instruction is in a fluid state and the final results are expected to crystallise only after the recommendation of the Kothari Commission are thrashed out on the floor of the Parliament.

The language controversy is a very serious one and it cuts deeply into the body of educational progress. Even as it is, a large number of failures at the university examinations is due to failure in English. When the base of English education commenced with teaching English from class III and the medium of instruction was English in higher secondary classes, the students did not have much difficulty in understanding the text-books prescribed for B A and M A classes. But now English starts at the VIth class and a student who passes the Higher Secondary examination is

*UPSC—Union Public Service Commission

ill-equipped to learn through the English medium or answer questions in English

Text-Books

We have in the present report given list of books recommended for the various disciplines. At times the long list of books prescribed or recommended for reading may appear trying to some of our readers. But the purpose is two-fold. In the first instance, the course of studies prescribed by a university does not, in spite of detailed syllabus, give a full idea of the scope of teaching and it is the list of the books (the contents of which are no doubt familiar to those who are interested in a particular discipline) which gives an integrated picture of the contents of teaching. Secondly, the list of books has been given to show that the teaching in Indian universities both in B.A. and M.A. classes, particularly in M.A. classes, depends entirely on books in English. A survey from one end of the report to the other would give an idea how heavily the university teaching departments are leaning at present on English language.

A large number of books are being written in Indian languages, but the publications have to take long and progressive strides, before they come to a standard where books in Indian languages for the M.A. degree in various disciplines may be able to supplant the books in English. And that is possible only if the Copyright Act is amended and the standard works are translated in the Indian languages.

A list giving the number of publications in important Indian languages from 1958-59 to 1963-64, year-wise, is given to show that the number of books published in Indian languages is not so poor, but it is generally the quality of books which is poor or in any case not adequate for the purpose of being prescribed for B.A. and M.A. classes of the universities here. And as far as research work in social sciences is concerned, one cannot eliminate English for at least one generation. The main aim should be to strengthen the base of the regional languages and allow them to expand and enlarge horizontally as well as vertically and when spread out in strength they will be able to occupy the inherent rightful position which they deserve.

We have, in giving the reports on current thinking on the language issue, relied mainly on the proceedings of M.P.'s education committee and the State Education Ministers' Conference and the press reports and called out factual information from these sources, giving them here as faithfully as we could reproduce so that facts untarnished, as reported, may be represented here, without being retouched by the personal views of the present writer.

According to the writer of these lines (1) the medium of instruction should be the regional language. This talk of mother-tongue

Publication of Books in India
1958-64

<i>Language</i>	<i>1958-59</i>	<i>1959-60</i>	<i>1960-61</i>	<i>1961-62</i>	<i>1962-63</i>	<i>1963-64</i>
Assamese	84	110	128	173	440	144
Bengali	1,561	1,750	1,322	2,043	1,574	1,666
English	12,873	12,585	8,924	9,361	9,202	11,256
Gujarati	1,816	1,124	907	966	891	1,037
Gurmukhi	354	241	197	764	276	309
Hindi	4,841	5,751	2,600	2,805	2,730	3,600
Kannada	587	463	443	411	619	784
Kashmiri	—	—	—	—	—	5
Malayalam	838	678	897	696	599	613
Marathi	1,457	1,401	1,103	1,033	1,558	1,793
Oriya	242	216	241	189	108	691
Sanskrit	272	137	114	168	250	261
Tamil	1,078	1,026	827	886	852	1,143
Telugu	986	811	633	924	832	705
Urdu	399	391	311	432	281	325
Other languages	272	172	180	220	151	213
TOTAL	27,600	24,856	18,827	21,076	20,516	24,559

instead of the regional language has its base in the political appeasement of a particular section of the people. We have given in this chapter a list of the languages and the dialects spoken and the number of people speaking the same. That has been given with the sole purpose of focussing the attention of our educationists and politicians on the enormous complications which the idea of teaching through the mother-tongue would open. The mother-tongue is not synonymous with the regional language. Once we try to mix up the two and talk loosely of teaching through the mother tongue, it would open enormous flood gates of demand and the present complexities which 'Hindi' and 'no Hindi' have presented will only be a drop in the ocean compared with the demands of teaching through the mother-tongue. We should therefore confine our liberal outlook to teaching through the regional language.

(2) Let Hindi, English, French, German, Russian, Spanish, Japanese, Chinese, Persian, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali, Malayalam, Gujarati and so on—the 14 languages included by the Indian Constitution—and the principal world languages be taught in India as optional.

The passing of an examination should be dependent only on passing the regional language/any other language and facilities should be provided for learning other Indian/world languages. Those who may pass the examination should be given an additional diploma.

In order to keep communication between the various States, a diploma in the English language may be made essential for those who seek particular jobs in the central government. But that should not be tagged to any university examination.

It is, however, only the future political developments which would give shape to the medium of instruction in the universities, at present the proposals are on the anvil.

The language issue is still in the melting pot and has not taken any final shape, but it has led to strong and raging controversies not only among the educationists on the one side and the politicians on the other, but the ranks are divided even among the government bodies. There was a spate of heated arguments between the Deputy Prime Minister and the Madras Law Minister in an open conference on the issue, whether higher education at the university level should be through the English medium or the regional media. The issue has generated so much heat that the External Affairs Minister of the Union Cabinet resigned. Mr M.C. Chagla is a retired Chief Justice of the Bombay High Court and a momentous step taken by him in resigning his cabinet post can well give an idea of the far reaching splits that this issue might lead to. Mr Chagla in his letter of resignation to the Prime Minister stated that the Government educational

policy was "likely to threaten, if not undermine, the unity of the country."

Thinking within Cabinet on this issue is guided mainly by two documents, the report of the Education Commission and the views expressed by an M.P.s' committee on the report. The Commission recommends that regional languages should be adopted as the media of higher education within 10 years. It does, however, recommend that the teaching and study of English should be promoted right from the school stage and that English should serve as the link language in higher education for academic intercommunication until Hindi takes its place in due course.

The M.P.s' Committee has endorsed the plea for regional languages, but accelerated the time schedule and played down the plea for a link language. This has caused alarm to many in the country, specially those from non Hindi speaking areas who feel aghast at the prospect (as Mr Chagla puts it) of one Indian having to speak to another through an interpreter.

The issue of medium of instruction at the university level is still pending discussion by Parliament. The Rajya Sabha has discussed it but the final shape would depend upon the deliberations and discussions in the Lok Sabha which is expected to discuss it early. What the implications of the change of medium of instruction would be will be fully realised only after switch over to the regional languages and it would be for the future reviewers to make their assessment, when the next report on the teaching of social sciences is published.

Recently (after Mr Chagla's resignation) the Union Education Minister Dr Triguna Sen stated that the switch over to regional languages had already gone too far to be reversed. Of the 70 universities, 35 already allowed a regional language to be used for answering examination papers. The change-over had so far taken place in an ad hoc and casual manner. In place of this unplanned drift—which he maintained was "inescapable and irreversible"—the centre was now trying to introduce an element of order.

The change must be gradual, allowing full scope for flexibility to universities to suit their own needs. "The criterion in each case should be that the change over helps at every stage to raise standards." He himself had never mentioned a time limit although he agreed with the Education Commission that caution need not be equated with delay.

The study of English should be strengthened side by side with the adoption of regional languages. Regretting the weakening or elimination of the study of English, he said, "this would put us back to the 18th century." He quoted the recommendation of the National Integration Council that English would have to be an international link "at all times" while its place as an

internal link would be "gradually" taken by Hindi "as it developed". He added that it was a part of his faith that "the gift of English" should be preserved and strengthened.

He spoke of Hindi and English serving as "dual links" the first replacing the second with the consent of non-Hindi-speaking people "one day." Dr Sen underlined that the problem of national integration had two distinct facets. The link between the intelligentsia and the masses within the same linguistic region had to be the local language. "This type of integration did not exist in the past and does not exist at present." As for the link between the intelligentsia of different regions, this was at one time Sanskrit and then English. Integration was necessary at both levels.

The concept of changing to regional languages, Dr. Sen reminded, had the support of all the great national leaders, including Mahatma Gandhi and Tagore. It had been endorsed by the Radhakrishnan Commission, the National Integration Committee, the Vice-Chancellors' conference and finally the Education Commission. The latter's stand evolved in consultation with university teachers all over the country, represented "the overwhelming view in the academic world."

Regional languages needed to be developed for which the Centre was willing to provide Rs 18 crores. It had been said this was done to buy over the States, but this was wrong. The States had decided in favour of regional languages long before. In any case, the charge exaggerated "beyond imagination" the capacity of the rupee to buy things.

The change could not wait until all the needed literature had been produced. As the Education Commission had warned the country should not get trapped in the vicious circle of too production because of the lack of demand and no demand because of too production.

But it must be clearly understood that no matter what the scale of publishing activity in regional languages, books will have to be recommended or prescribed for university courses in English, Hindi, and where necessary even in other library languages. With command over library languages standards should be maintained. To cut across linguistic barriers, Dr. Sen promised an intensive effort to set up institutions of higher learning which cut across the frontiers of regional languages. It would be the objective of Government policy to increase, expand and strengthen such institutions teaching in English and Hindi. Since English would have to continue as an additional or alternative link language for "certain practical considerations" its study must be at an adequate level. But his concept, Dr. Sen added, had no place for weak underdeveloped Indian languages with almost exclusive emphasis on English as the sole link, internal or external.

THE LATEST POSITION

The position at the end of October 1967 is as follows

Fewer Students Prefer English as Medium

Even as the controversy over the role of regional languages as the media of instruction at the university stage continues, a large number of universities have already switched over to these languages either wholly or in conjunction with English

A quick survey of the university scene shows that while science students particularly at the post graduate level, prefer English as the medium of instruction and examination there is an ever increasing number of them who have already changed over to the regional language. In most universities the number of English medium pupils is indeed sharply falling

Perhaps not so well known is the fact that over 40 universities in the country, including Delhi, Calcutta, Madras, Mysore, Lucknow, Gujarat, Banaras, Allahabad, Punjab, Patna, Osmania, Vikram, Saugar and Viswa-Bharati, offer a regional language as the medium of instruction in addition to English at the degree level in the faculties of arts and commerce

An Exception

In most of these universities a regional language can be offered as the medium even for the sciences, but students generally opt for English. The only exception to this would seem to be Shivaji University which insists on English as the sole medium for science subjects

The picture changes altogether at the post-graduate level. Here, of the 40 only 18 or so universities have provision for teaching or examining through a regional language. English, thus, continues to be the only medium at this level in the other universities. At the other end of the scale are the "wholly regional" universities even at the post-graduate level like Ravi Shankar, Gujarat Vidyapeeth, Kasbi Vidyapeeth and SNDT. They teach and examine in Hindi, Gujarati and Marathi only. So far as science subjects are concerned, English would appear to be the only medium at this level.

That more and more students are taking to regional languages is strikingly brought out by a close look at the statistics for the year 1965 and 1966. At Banaras for instance where 90% of the students who passed the B.A. examination last year had Hindi as the medium. At Allahabad it was 80% Hindi.

Trend in North

In most north Indian universities the swing towards regional languages even when it is not total, is markedly pronounced. Indeed in some cases not even one examinee offered English.

the "medium" at the B A examination. A case in point is that of Gorakhpur where all the 2 339 examinees last year took the test in the regional language. At Indore of the 969 examinees, only 86 took the test in English.

English however enjoys an edge over the regional languages in the case of universities such as Aligarh, Delhi, Calcutta, Madras, Mysore, Osmania and Bombay. But even in their case as in Delhi which uniquely offers subjectwise choice of the medium of instruction and examination to students the trend towards regional languages is remarkably clear.

The following subjectwise breakdown of figures for the B A examination of Delhi University becomes very revealing in this context.

Economics Total passed 4,453 (Hindi medium 1 884, English 2,569), Political Science total passed 3,369 (Hindi 1 815, English 1,554), History total passed 2 323 (Hindi 1,433, English 889), Philosophy total passed 512 (110 Hindi 402 English) and Commerce total passed 1,397 (Hindi 285, English 1,112).

At Punjab University of the 7,520 who took their Bachelor's degrees this year 6 082 offered the regional language as the medium as against 1,445 who preferred English.

On the contrary when it comes to science subjects most universities still appear to be reluctant to go "regional" and indeed show a marked preference for English. This is also illustrated by the fact that of the 40 universities covered by this survey only Gorakhpur, Magadh, Ravi Shankar and SNDT (Women's) show the majority of students taking B Sc examination in the regional medium. On the other hand, Mysore, to cite an example, had just one student who offered the regional language as the medium at last year's B Sc examination against 1,140 who opted for English.

CHAPTER XIV

EXAMINATIONS

The teaching of social sciences in Indian universities can be resolved into the following factors

(i) Number of universities and colleges, (ii) admissions, (iii) number of students, (iv) choice of subjects, (v) curricula, (vi) books prescribed for study or recommended for reading, (vii) teaching, (viii) examinations, (ix) degrees and diplomas conferred. This would broadly cover the out line of the scope of discussion. There are other matters also (a) facilities of hostel accommodation, (b) libraries, (c) fees, (d) social, cultural and other extra curricular activities such as sports and games, students' unions etc, but though essential ingredients in a comprehensive consideration, they are secondary in importance to the nine primary factors enumerated above

The nine points specified above have all an important bearing on the progress of teaching of social sciences in India during the last eleven years (1956-67). It is difficult to say which one is more important than the other. The "examinations" constitute one of the major factors, and we would not be over-emphasising the "examinations" if we state that all teaching in India—whether in schools, colleges or universities—is examination oriented. The he all and end all of teaching of social sciences (and other teaching in Indian universities) is getting through the examination. And this is not so only in the eyes of the student community but in those of teachers also. We shall discuss, hereafter, how the present examination system has been criticised by all responsible educationists not only in their individual capacity but collectively also as members of the education commissions and committees. But despite all adverse comments and criticism, the system subsists on

Before dealing with these, we would like to give an idea how the evaluation by the various universities has been classified into divisions first, second, third and pass or in groups A, B, C, D, etc. Information pertaining to the comprehensive grading as in force in the various Indian universities would occupy too much space and, therefore, an outline is being furnished here, by reference to some of the Universities only

We have in the following table given particulars of grading in examinations in the following universities

Aligarh, Agra, Allahabad, Andhra, Annamalai, Banaras, Baroda, Bombay, Delhi, Gauhati, Gujarat, Jabalpur, Jadavpur, Jammu & Kashmir, Jodhpur, Kerala, Kurukshetra, Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Osmania, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sardar Vallabhbhai, Saugor, Utkal and Viswa Bharati. These cover only 28 universities out of 68 but the particulars given herein would serve the purpose of giving the general pattern of grading

GRADING IN EXAMINATIONS

	<i>I Div.</i>	<i>II Div.</i>	<i>III Div.</i>
Aligarh			
P U C , B.A.	60	48	36
LL B.	65	50	36
B Com., M A	60	48	36
Agra			
B A.	60	45	33
M A.	60	48	36
Allahabad			
B A., B Com.	60	48	33
LL.B , LL.M.	60	50	—
M A.	60	48	36
Andhra			
B A., B Com	60	50	35
LL.B	60	50	—
B A. (Hons.)	60	50	40
Annamalai			
B A.	60	50	40
M A	60	50	40

The classification of divisions is as follows :

A denotes 60% and above ; B denotes 45% to less than 60% ; C from 40% to 45% ; D denotes distinction with 75% or more.

Banaras			
B A.	60	50	35
M.A., M Com.	60	45	85
LL.B., LL.M.	60	50	—
Baroda			
B A , M A.	60	50	40
Bombay			
B A. (Genl.)	60	45	40
B A. (Spl)	60	45	35
M.A., M.Com.	60	50	40
B.Com.	60	50	40
LL.B , LL M.	66	50	—

	<i>I Div</i>	<i>II Div.</i>	<i>III Div</i>
Delhi			
B A.	60	50	36
B Com , M A	60	50	40
LL B	65	50	—
M A (Econ Stat)	60	50	—
LL.M	65	—	—
Gauhati			
B A	60	40	36
B Com	60	40	—
M.A	60	45	—
Gujarat			
I A , B Com	60	45	30
B Com	60	50	40
LL B , LL M	66½	50	—
M A	65	50	37½—40
Jabalpur			
B A , B Com	60	45	33
M.A.	60	48	36
LL B	65	50	—
LL M	66½	50	—
Jadavpur			
B A (Hons)	60	40	33
M A	60	40	—
Jammu and Kashmir			
B A	60	48	36
B Com	60	48	33
M A	60	50	40
Jodhpur			
B A	60	45	33
M A , LL B	60	48	36
Kerala	60	50	35
Kurukhstra			
B A	60	50	33
M.A	60	50	40
Lucknow			
B.A. , M A.	60	48	36
LL.B , LL.M	66	50	—

Madras

A+	denotes marks between	65% and 75%
A	" "	60% and 65%
B+	" "	55% and 60%
B	" "	50% and 55%
C+	" "	45% and 50%
C	" "	below 45%
D	"	75% or more marks in the subject
F	denotes failure	
H	denotes 100% marks.	

	I Div	II Div	III Div.
Mysore	60	50	35-40
Nagpur			
B A.	60	45	30
M A , B Com , M Com	60	48	36
LL B.	70	50	—
LL M	66½	50	—
Osmania			
B A , B Com.	60	48	35
MA	60	50	—
LL B , LL M	60	45	—
Punjab	60	50	33
Rajasthan			
B A	60	45	30
M A	60	48	36
LL B	60	48	—
LL M.	66	50	—
Sardar Vallabhbhai Vidya Peeth			
B A., B.Com	60	48	36 (Pass)
M A , M Com	60	50	40 (Pass)

Saugar	60	48	33-36
Shri Venkateshwar			
D + '1	denotes	85% or over	
D	"	75% to less than 85%	
A +	"	68% to less than 75%	
A	"	60% to less than 68%	
B +	"	55% to less than 60%	
B	"	50% to less than 55%	
C +	"	45% to less than 50%	
C	"	40% to less than 45%	
C -	"	35% to less than 40%	
F	"	failure	
Utkal			
B A, B Com	60	45	36
M A, M Com	60	48	36
LL B, LLM	60	50	—
Vishwa Bharati			
B A (Hons.)	60	40	33 3
M.A.	60	45	—

The system which has been coming on for a century is that students do not value so much an extensive study as an intensive study of important topics, because that has been found by experience to be the best method of success at an examination.

The 'notes' as they are popularly called are either dictated by the teachers or can be had galore in printed form and a large section of the student community worships these minor idols to get through the examination. The fault does not lie so much with the student community as with the authorities who prescribe such a heavy volume of recommended reading that most of the students find it outside their financial means to purchase the books (and a student must have at his side during examination days the books which he has read throughout the year and which he has marked—for the writer of these lines feels that no thorough study of a book can be had unless the significant portions are marked, ticked and underlined and at places, marginal notes put in the book itself). Besides the number of books prescribed is so large that they defeat the very purpose for the reason that it is difficult for most of the students to make a thorough study of them. Novels can be read with speed and do not tax the brain, but the study of text-books dealing with subjects in which a student has to appear requires greater and more intensive application of the mind and the pace of reading is naturally slow and the process of assimilation taxing and time-consuming. What

is the actual result? And naturally so. The student moves only in a short circuit of 'class notes' and 'printed notes'. It would not be out of place to refer to another pernicious helielf which persists in the minds of most of the students (and the helielf has been reinforced by decades of experience) that whatever has been taught in the classes is sufficient for purposes of the examination. Even the good and bright students rely on this recipe for those who try to cover the entire course recommended by the university authorities find that they have not been able to complete even a sector of the periphery of the prescribed course and the examination dates have arrived.

Moderation

Many examiners and the heads of the departments of some of the universities might raise their eye brows at what is being written hereunder but the truth must be told at all costs. The system of 'moderation' of the papers set for examinations has been devised and is in vogue to eliminate chances of too stiff questions being set or to guard against a question on a topic, which has not been prescribed by a particular university but which the examiner of another university (in which that topic is included in the course of studies) might set unwittingly.

But an evil has crept in. At the time of moderation, all the questions whatever set by the internal or the external examiners are exposed to the moderators and not infrequently (i) the questions on topics prescribed but not properly taught in the class rooms are eliminated.

(ii) Particular questions which are pet questions or considered important according to the subjective notion of the head of the department or other senior member of the teaching staff, who happens to be on the board of moderators, are introduced. And the students know full well (as they know the pet theories of politicians) the caprices or the bias of the moderators for particular questions. The student community has good 'noses'. They smell by the pattern and contents of teaching as to what questions are likely to be set, or have been set. And thus the long list of books recommended serves in some universities and some departments more as window dressing, for the questions generally pertain to the topics lectured upon in the class rooms or dictated in notes. Or, perhaps the idea is that teaching in colleges being different from spoon feeding, students are expected to study by themselves, lecturers and readers and professors are only to show the way!

We are inclined to think that if the system of moderation is abolished and if all the paper setters and examiners are external, the examinations would be more impartial and objective and quite a different picture would emerge. We may reserve as large a quota of marks as we would, for tutorials, class work and home

work, but let the examinations be impartial. In particular subjects and in particular universities, some heads of the departments feel that members of a particular class, community, section, or offering particular subjects must be pushed up and smuggled into government service and marks are awarded lavishly so that their students may fare well in selection based on divisions secured at the university.

The evils referred to have been stated out because they are universal in application but by way of illustration. For obvious reasons, it is not advisable to refer to any university or subject by name. The system of examinations, as such, has been much condemned because there is not true evaluation and since learning has become examination oriented, there is more emphasis on passing an examination to a good division than on the process of enriching the mind with greater and greater knowledge or cultivate the habit of thinking and harnessing the mental faculties to the process of observation, evaluation and discrimination and developing the judgment. There being more emphasis on memorising, the system of cramming is still in vogue. One of the contributory causes to the practice of cramming is the early Indian tradition, when printing was unknown and books even handwritten were in short supply, the students used to commit to memory thousands of verses. Voluminous texts used to be committed to memory. There are oriental scholars in India, even today who can recite twenty thousand or more verses, in the regular order, without a single mistake.

Oriental learning in the old form is fast disappearing from India giving place to new types of learning, new methods and new techniques and processes, but the impact of learning by heart has made deep impressions on the method of learning and teaching. And as long as the present examination system prevails, we cannot eliminate it.

There has been much criticism, and rightly so, of the examination system. No reform worth the name in this regard has been made, not because it has escaped notice. The University Education Commission stated in its report in 1949

"For nearly half a century, examinations, as they have been functioning, have been recognised as one of the worst features of Indian Education. Commissions and Committees, have expressed their alarm at their pernicious domination over the whole system of education in India. The obvious deficiencies and harmful consequences of the most pervasive evil in Indian education have been analysed and set out clearly by successive Education Commissions since 1902 by a government resolution as far back as 1904 and a Committee of the Central Advisory Board of education in recent years. With most of their criticism we are in agreement and do not wish to dilate on the patent defects and dangers of this system. We note that while the magnitude of the problem has been growing at an alarming rate,

nothing constructive in the way of reform has happened. The Calcutta University Commission (1917-19) has shown concern at the rising numbers involved in these examinations. The numbers have gone on increasing while the character of examinations has remained unchanged. An unsound examination system continues to dominate instruction to the detriment of a quickly expanding system of education. In our visits to the universities we heard, from teachers and students alike, the endless tale of how examinations have become the aim and end of education, how all instruction is subordinated to them, how they kill all initiative in the teachers and students, *how capricious, invalid, unreliable and inadequate* they are and how they tend to corrupt the moral standard of university life.

"We are convinced that if we are to suggest one single reform in university education, it should be that of the examinations. We advisedly say "reform" although we know that, in India, as elsewhere in the world, dissatisfaction with examinations has been so keen that eminent educationists and important educational organisations have even advocated the abolition of examinations. We do not share that extreme view and feel that examinations rightly designed and intelligently used can be a useful factor in the educational progress. If examinations are necessary a thorough reform of these is still more necessary."

We are covering in this report, primarily, the progress of teaching of social sciences, during the decade 1956-66 and since the question of examinations in social science subjects has not been separately discussed or thrown light upon by educationists and education commissions, because what applies to examinations in other subjects, applies to social science subjects as well and in equal measure, we have to refer to the observations, not so much with a view to initiate new proposals here, but to present an objective study, for the factual narration by any individual (such as the present report by the writer of these lines) is likely to be construed as too subjective a view. It is, therefore, to discount this subjective approach that we have brought herein eminent witnesses, such as the Radhakrishnan Commission, who had the facilities to visit the various universities and had the benefit of rich and varied experience of the eminent personnel who constituted the Commission, and had also the privilege of having as its head an eminent educationist of international name and fame.

The picture presented in the above excerpts from the report of the Education Commission relates to seven years prior to 1955-56 period. It is, therefore, necessary to examine what the position was during the seven years after the 1955-56 epoch. And for this we would call as a witness another eminent educationist who was also secretary to the Government of India, in the Ministry of Education. Dr. Saryidain stated in 1962 as follows.

"At the end of the prescribed course of study all college and university students have to appear for the final examination designed to test what they have acquired over the year. The examination papers are set by "external" examiners and are mainly of the essay type. The external examination is considered essential for the maintenance of educational standards and is the only type of evaluation which has general acceptance among the Indian educationists. Since these examinations admittedly measure only knowledge of *discrete* facts, the acquisition and imparting of factual information has become the primary objective of learning and teaching. Indeed this is the goal towards which students and teachers direct all efforts. Thus the influence of the final public examination and the absence of tutorial work have tended to lay an excessive stress on the memory rather than on understanding and reflection. The validity and reliability of the examinations have been questioned and many attempts have been made to reform the present system along the lines recommended by the University Education Commissions. However, the progress has been rather slow." This excerpt is from the book 'Depth Study of University Admission Procedures'. Since then even in 1967 there is status quo in this regard and we can say that even during the last ten years there has been practically no progress in the system. Matters are as they stood.

Although the number of students attending colleges is large, the number of successful students at the examinations is comparatively speaking poor. The percentage of successful candidates at the M A examinations is fairly good while that of candidates appearing at B A is only about 50% or less. This is so because admission to M A has been selective and restricted.

This restriction should however not be commended because the percentage of successful candidates thereby is raised. If in our hospitals we restrict admissions to only good patients (who suffer from minor ailments and are more likely to recover) and do not admit seriously ill patients (who have less chances of recovery) our percentages of patients who are successfully treated will certainly go up and look very well on paper and the hospital reports would look more glorious, but should our policy be so in hospitals? The same applies to our colleges and universities. Now are being given some tables

TABLE I
Examination Results

Year	Matriculation and equivalent exam.	Number of Scholars Passing		M.A., M.Sc.	LL.B., B.L.	B. Cam.	M. Cam.
		Intermediate	B.A. & B.Sc. including (Hons.)				
1949-50	189,184	59,283	28,745	5,603	2,026	—*	—
1950-51	241,143	72,685	32,238	7,138	3,390	5,599	645
1951-52	261,059	77,836	36,136	7,743	4,522	—	—
1952-53	334,760	89,021	40,017	7,863	5,549	—	—
1953-54	397,005	104,851	52,178	9,821	6,581	7,231	1,221
1954-55	400,014	126,476	57,149	11,103	5,970	7,787	980
1955-56	429,494	131,739	53,969	11,769	5,584	8,504	1,093
1956-57	466,764	136,810	64,659	13,005	5,664	10,255	1,033
1957-58	523,806	150,791	71,870	14,370	5,286	10,383	1,056
1958-59	564,194	173,868	75,928	17,562	6,088	12,776	1,743
1959-60	572,369	127,700	80,826	20,514	5,934	12,767	2,136
1960-61	623,116	115,731	92,952	23,685	7,083	13,892	2,337
1961-62	669,009	94,533	99,594	25,963	6,865	15,520	2,231

* — Indicates figures not ascertained.

TABLE II
Results of Examinations B.A. & B.Sc.
1949-1950—1958-1959

Year	Number Appeared	Pass %	Passing in I, II Divisions	Total Number Passed	Passing in I Division	Passing in II Division	Passing in III Division	Without Division including Pass- ing in compari- mental Exam
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1949-50	38,468	46.9	11.1	18,004	2.3	21.3	73.0	3.4
1953-54	76,360	45.0	9.2	34,338	2.2	18.3	64.8	14.7
1954-55	80,038	48.5	10.2	38,819	2.0	18.7	62.7	16.6
1955-56	101,165	56.6	7.3	37,013	2.0	18.0	69.8	10.2
1956-57	94,411	48.0	10.1	45,277	2.6	18.4	58.1	20.9
1957-58	105,625	47.8	8.7	50,440	1.4	16.8	63.1	18.7
1958-59	117,403	44.3	7.9	51,900	1.8	16.0	56.3	25.4

TABLE III
B.A. (Hons.)

Year	Number Appeared	Pass %	Passing in I, II Divisions	Total Number Passed	Passing in I Division	Passing in II Division	Passing in III Division	Without Division Including Pass- ing in compari- mental Exam.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1949-50	2,469	71.4	380	1,762	7.4	45.9	29.9	16.8
1953-54	2,887	71.6	347	2,067	7.0	41.5	22.5	29.2
1954-55	3,419	68.8	438	2,351	6.1	37.7	21.7	14.5
1955-56	3,313	71.0	47.1	2,352	7.5	50.8	23.7	10.0
1956-57	3,769	67.6	29.9	2,547	5.6	38.6	24.3	31.5
1957-58	5,443	67.0	41.5	3,646	5.7	56.3	27.1	10.9
1958-59	5,512	71.0	44.4	3,912	5.6	56.9	27.1	10.4

TABLE IV

Examination Results 1962-63
1963 Annual and 1962 Supplementary

<i>Exam.</i>	<i>No. appeared</i>	<i>No. Passed</i>	<i>Pass % 1963</i>	<i>Pass % 1962</i>
Pre-University P U C (Arts)	1,18,660	53,183	44.8	48.6
" (Com.)	16,825	12,788	47.9	48.8
P.U.C (whole)	1,50,934	61,360	40.7	39.0
Inter. (Arts)	32,512	14,079	43.3	38.2
" (Commerce)	2,463	916	37.2	47.1
" (Whole)	2,171	967	44.5	26.9

Degree and Postgraduate Examinations

<i>Exam.</i>	<i>No. appeared</i>	<i>No. Passed</i>	<i>Pass % 1963</i>	<i>Pass % 1962</i>
Arts				
B.A.	1,56,705	75,111	48.2	46.1
B.A. (Hons)	7,538	4,691	60.2	57.7
M.A.	28,154	22,818	81.0	83.3
M.S.W.	116	111	95.7	90.9
Commerce				
B.Com.	35,345	17,469	49.4	48.1
B.Com. (Hons)	232	187	80.6	71.8
M.Com.	3,222	2,357	73.2	74.9
M.B.A.	19	19	100%	95.2
Law				
BL/LL.B.	13,141	7,425	56.5	55.9
ML/LL.M.	284	95	33.5	33.9
B.C.L.	2	1	50.5	100

TABLE V

*Examination Results (1963 and 1962 Supplementary)
Percentage of Passes*

<i>University</i>	<i>B A</i>	<i>B A (Hons)</i>	<i>M.A</i>	<i>B Com</i>	<i>B Com (Hons)</i>	<i>M Com</i>
1 Agra	51.4	—	86.1	49.6	—	76.5
2 Aligarh	86.9	—	91.1	85.3	—	100
3 Allahabad	64.5	—	93.2	91.9	—	91.1
4 Andhra	29.6	100	89.6	59.9	100	83.3
5 Annamalai	46.9	—	87.0	39.0	—	64.3
6 Banaras	57.9	—	88.5	58.9	—	95.7
7 Baroda	72.7	—	80.2	53.2	—	75.0
8 Bhagalpur	37.9	—	73.9	50.2	—	100
9 Bihar	38.0	71.1	89.6	53.6	83.0	—
10 Bombay	67.6	—	69.3	63.3	—	55.7
11 Burdwan	48.2	—	68.9	45.8	—	—
12 Calcutta	51.1	53.7	63.8	44.7	93.1	56.8
13 Delhi	50.8	78.3	75.8	73.8	—	100
14 Gauhati	33.2	64.6	63.2	45.6	71.4	60.8
15 Gorakhpur	61.2	—	88.9	50.2	—	86.8
16 Gujarat	78.7	—	77.0	50.3	—	65.7
17 Jabalpur	60.3	—	89.1	68.7	—	89.7
18 Jadavpur	—	77.4	83.6	—	—	—
19 Jammu & Kashmir	55.2	—	79.9	65.2	—	—
20 Jodhpur	42.3	—	83.7	71.8	—	80.9
21 Kalyani	—	—	100.0	—	—	—
22 Karnatak	74.3	—	63.4	50.4	—	72.9
23 Kerala	30.4	—	65.0	43.5	—	87.3
24 Kurukshetra	—	—	75.9	—	—	—
25 Lucknow	45.1	72.7	95.4	61.8	—	98.0
26 Madras	39.6	—	74.5	42.0	—	50.0
27 Magadh	31.4	41.3	86.6	40.6	73.0	70.0
28 Marathwada	46.7	—	55.0	56.7	—	—
29 Mysore	39.5	—	73.3	34.0	—	100.0
30 Nagpur	58.0	—	86.8	59.1	—	91.8
31 North Bengal	39.8	—	—	—	—	—
32 Osmania	38.3	—	89.1	33.8	—	100.0
33 Punjab	40.9	40.5	76.4	41.7	—	—
34 Punjabi	61.8	—	85.7	75.0	—	—
35 Patna	48.0	58.5	91.1	68.1	62.5	85.4
36 Poona	44.4	—	66.9	26.4	—	54.9
37 Rajasthan	49.0	—	82.5	69.1	—	77.3
38 Ranchi	34.4	61.2	93.9	37.6	—	—
39 S V Vidyapeeth	100	—	75.0	96.6	—	86.7
40 Saugor	65.3	—	96.3	87.8	—	100.0
41 S N D T (Women s)	50.0	62.5	56.6	—	—	—
42 Shri Venkateshwar	34.7	—	85.5	52.8	—	—
43 Utkal	54.9	88.2	80.6	56.8	—	—
44 Vikram	74.1	—	91.6	73.6	—	83.9
45 Vishwa Bharati	37.8	54.5	69.4	—	—	—
TOTAL	48.2	62.2	81.0	49.4	60.6	73.2

TABLE VI
Examination Results
(1963 Annual—1962 Supplementary Results)

<i>University</i>		<i>BL/LL B</i> <i>Appeared/Passed</i>		<i>ML/LL M</i> <i>Appeared/Passed</i>		<i>B C L</i> <i>Appeared/Passed</i>	
1	Agra	1084	663	18	0	—	—
2	Aligarh	163	126	3	2	—	—
3	Allahabad	333	198	1	1	—	—
4	Andhra	110	78	7	3	—	—
5	Annamalai	—	—	—	—	—	—
6	Banaras	209	128	9	3	—	—
7	Baroda	112	81	—	—	—	—
8	Bhagalpur	182	133	—	—	—	—
9	Bihar	209	134	—	—	—	—
10	Bombay	1,711	916	68	26	—	—
11	Calcutta	767	271	—	—	—	—
12	Delhi	287	211	2	—	2	1
13	Gauhati	111	30	—	—	—	—
14	Gorakhpur	270	118	—	—	—	—
15	Gujarat	910	382	39	7	—	—
16	Jabalpur	174	100	5	3	—	—
17	Jammu and Kashmir	—	—	—	—	—	—
18	Jodhpur	55	34	—	—	—	—
19	Kalyani	—	—	—	—	—	—
20	Karnatak	279	128	2	2	—	—
21	Kerala	326	155	—	—	—	—
22	Lucknow	693	609	13	8	—	—
23	Madras	935	593	38	4	—	—
24	Magadh	121	89	—	—	—	—
25	Marathwada	78	51	—	—	—	—
26	Mysore	528	268	19	3	—	—
27	Nagpur	206	53	3	3	—	—
28	North Bengal	—	—	—	—	—	—
29	Osmania	718	340	24	16	—	—
30	Panjab	538	316	3	1	—	—
31	Punjab	—	—	—	—	—	—
32	Patna	163	127	4	2	—	—
33	Poona	313	161	17	9	—	—
34	Rajasthan	278	178	3	2	—	—
35	Ranchi	178	133	—	—	—	—
36	S V Vidy Peeth	—	—	—	—	—	—
37	Saugor	371	186	—	—	—	—
38	S N D T	—	—	—	—	—	—
39	Sri Venkateswar	—	—	—	—	—	—
40	Utkal	270	216	6	—	—	—
41	Vikram	459	213	—	—	—	—
42	Vishwa Bharati	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL		15,141	7,425	284	95	2	1

Education Commission's Report

It would be relevant to quote the Education Commission (1964-66) in this connection. For facility of reference the para Nos of the report have also been given.

Improvement of Teaching and Evaluation

11.42. One of the most important reforms needed in higher education is to improve teaching and evaluation. The existing conditions in this regard are extremely unhappy. Most of the teaching, till comparatively recently, has been dominated by a syllabus which is many years out of date. In fact the position in many universities remains unchanged still. As the performance of students is assessed by a single external examination based on the syllabus, no undue emphasis is placed on unintelligent and selective cramming. The situation is further aggravated by rigid rules which govern the selection of courses by the inordinate amount of time that both students and teachers spend in formal classroom contacts, with the resulting lack of opportunity, for independent study by the students and of adequate time for lecture preparation by the teachers. If university teaching is to be vitalised, changes are needed on the following lines.

- more flexibility in the courses offered and freedom of choice by the students,
- a marked reduction in the amount of formal instruction and a corresponding increase in tutorial work, discussion groups, seminars and in independent study, and
- a change in the character of teaching to discourage cramming drastically and to stimulate curiosity, problem solving ability and originality.

11.43. The problem of introducing greater flexibility to the courses will be discussed in the next chapter. With regard to the formal lectures we suggest that in the universities and the colleges the number of formal classroom and laboratory hours should be somewhat reduced. The time thus saved should be devoted to independent study under the guidance of instructors to assigned reading and writing of essays, solving of scientific and mathematical problems and small research projects in which the student seeks out and learns to use independently the books and documents he needs. Every effort should be made to challenge and stretch the minds of the students by assigning them more exacting reading assignments, asking them to solve more difficult problems and providing opportunities for independent study of subjects in which they become specifically interested. In addition, the students should be encouraged to do much more general reading than they do at present, both during the academic year and in vacation periods. This highlights the importance of building up good libraries both in universities and colleges.

11 51 Teaching Methods The problem of teaching methods in higher education has been a relatively neglected subject in India so far. We recommend that it may be examined by the UGC through a special committee appointed for the purpose. We also recommend that the schools education¹ whose establishment we have proposed should make a special study of the teaching methods not only at the school stage but also in the universities and affiliated colleges. Such studies will be of great use in organising the orientation courses for junior lecturers which we have recommended.

11 52 Examination Reform In the present system when the future of the students is totally decided by one external examination at the end of the year, they pay minimum attention to the teachers, do little independent study throughout most of the academic year and cram desperately for the final examination. The crippling effect of external examinations on the quality of work in higher education is so great that examination reform has become crucial to all progress and has to go hand in hand with the improvements in teaching. The UGC rightly emphasised the significance of the problem and said we are convinced that if we are to suggest any single reform in university education it should be that of examinations. One of the earliest efforts of the UGC was concerned with the study of the problem and the report of its expert committee on examination reform is a useful document. But it has not been implemented to any appreciable extent so far. This is one of those areas in education about which one can say that the problem is known, its significance is realised, the broad lines of the solution—at least to begin with—are known but for some reason or other an effort to implement it on any worthwhile scale or in a meaningful manner has not yet been made. What is needed is vigorous and sustained action.

11 53 We make below a few recommendations that might make a welcome break through in the situation. One line of attack would be to abolish set syllabuses and the external examinations based on them altogether and to replace them by a system of internal and continuous evaluation by the teachers themselves. This is already being done in some institutions like IITs or the agricultural universities and it could be increasingly extended to others as soon as the necessary facilities and conditions can be provided. We hope that at no distant date, it will be adopted by all teaching universities and that the major universities will give a lead in this matter.

11 54 We realise however that external examinations will remain with us for a long time, especially in universities which have large numbers of affiliated colleges of very unequal standards. The main strategy here would be to attack the problem on two fronts, introduction of more frequent periodical assessment so

that the undue emphasis on the final examination as the sole determinant of success is reduced, and reform of evaluation techniques. With regard to the first a good deal can be gained if the performance of the student is assessed throughout the session in a suitable manner and if periodical tests are held in the middle and at the end of each term. A system of internal assessment should be introduced as a supplement to the external examination based on such periodical evaluations. The results of these internal assessments should not be mechanically added to the external marks but kept separate and both should be shown side by side in the final certificate. Passes should be required separately in both and the divisions gained in them should be declared separately. Every year, a careful review should be made of the correlation between internal and external assessment separately for each institution. This should be taken as a point for classification of colleges and also related to grant-in-aid so that institutions which tend to over assess their students persistently would stand to lose in status and finance. The regulations may also authorise the university to withdraw affiliation for persistent irresponsible assessments.

1155 Regarding improvement in examination technique we have little to add to the learned literature already available on the subject.¹ As we said earlier what is lacking is not knowledge but will, courage and perseverance to work out its implementation. We suggest the following measures:

- (i) There is need for a central source to guide and activate a movement of examination reform without which no early and effective progress is possible. For instance the activity that one now sees in this matter in the State Boards for secondary education is due largely to the central examination reform unit in the National Council of Educational Research and Training. We recommend that the UGC should set up immediately a similar examination reform unit for higher education at a sufficiently high level which would work in collaboration with the universities. This could become the starting point of an effective programme of reform.
- (ii) The next step should be to persuade some universities to launch upon the programme in a big way. In addition to major universities which will have to give a lead by abolishing the external examinations altogether, the other universities should set up special units for examination reform and should prepare and implement a programme of reform in consultation with the central unit.

¹ A special paper on the subject prepared for us by Dr. H. G. Taylor is given in supplementary Volume I Part V. We broadly agree with the recommendations made therein.

- (iii) Another important point of emphasis would be the reorientation of university teachers to adopt new and improved techniques of evaluation. A programme of seminars, discussions or workshops should be organised to serve as the spearhead of the reform. This will have to be continued from year to year to evaluate results to try out experiments and to make further plans. This would be the responsibility of the central and local examination reform units.

We trust that, if a few universities can make a determined attack on the problem and achieve a break-through the whole programme of examination reform will be greatly accelerated.

11.56 We recommend that the grading or classification of examination results is almost invariably done on an absolute rather than on a relative basis. In our present system of examinations an 80 per cent mark, say, in mathematics, does not convey the same meaning as, say 80 percent mark in history or English. Again an 80 per cent mark in one year does not mean the same thing as 80 per cent mark in another because examiners may be different and there may be many other variations from year to year. A system of grading must be such as to bring out whether a student belongs, say, to the top 20 per cent of his class or to the bottom 20 per cent. It is strongly recommended that even if the present system of examinations and classifying is continued, it should be supplemented by giving in the same certificate the relative grading of the student, say, on a five point scale. Grade "A" would mean that a student is in the top 20 per cent of those who have been successful at the examination.

11.57 We recommend that early measures should be taken to abolish payment of remuneration to examiners. Evaluation is a part of teaching and teachers should be willing to undertake it as a part of their duties. This is one of the reasons why we have recommended an increase in the salary scale of teachers. However, we recognise that the load of this work should not be too heavy on any teacher and would, therefore, suggest that the maximum number of scripts to be examined by a teacher in a year should not exceed 500.

Here end the excerpts from the report of the Kothari Commission. A spirit of trade unionism has entered even in a section of examinees. There are at times walk outs by examinees when the papers set are stiff, Examiners have been intimidated.

Writing about the examinations, one cannot possibly ignore the daily press reports, as they catch the eye. A report from the *Sunday Standard* (dated 9.4.1967) is being given below.

Invigilator Knifed to Death

"Allahabad April 8 (UNI), Mr Chhabri Nath Singh, a teacher, was fatally stabbed this morning at B.L.J. Inter College Examination

entre, Mirzapur, by a candidate appearing for the High School examination according to reports received heretoday'

This is not a stray incident. Such cases have increased and hoodliganism by examinees has been escalating.

Worst of all the evaluation of examination papers has acquired a commercial bias. Many examiners, who wield influence with the appointing authorities, succeed in getting examinership and the number of answer books they receive is much more than they can cope with and not infrequently the answer books are examined by the grown up educated sons and daughters of the examiners or the old pupils of the examiners and the result can well be imagined! Even where the examiners appointed set themselves to the task the number of answer books from various Boards and universities is so large that the evaluation is cursory and a quick work. These short cuts in evaluation at times do incalculable injustice to the examinees—many fail and others do not get the division they are fit for. It is necessary to make a rule that no examiner examines more than 500 answer books in a year and those who examine by proxy should be debarred from examinership. A press report is given below. It speaks for itself.

Excerpt from the *State man* dated 12th September, 1967
(page 5 columns, 3 and 4)

Bhagalpur University in a Shabby Mess

Patna, Sept 11—Institutes and colleges affiliated to Bhagalpur University, Bihar, carry a bad reputation as the university has in the past been a convenient place for persons to get a degree for Rs 175/ or more, according to the report of the University Inquiry Commission, reports UNI.

The Commission headed by Mr S P Singh, was set up by the State Government last year to inquire into the working of the universities in Bihar. Witnesses who appeared before the Commission and the replies received on the questionnaire issued by the Commission have revealed many corrupt practices, including wilful leakage of question papers and favouritism to students by members of the examination Board. It has also come to light that use of unfair means was rampant in examinations because of ill organised and ill equipped examination centres and the selection of wrong persons for invigilation work.

The report says that some teachers who had been punished by the old Patna University for serious irregularities, were appointed paper setters or examiners by Bhagalpur University.

The Commission also found that some teachers in the affiliated colleges thrived on income from students for giving them board and lodging facilities and for offering facilities to use

unfair means in examinations. The Commission found the condition of the affiliated colleges both academically and financially exceedingly bad. More than 90% of the colleges are in huge deficit totalling about Rs 1 crore.

The Commission says that most of the newly started colleges have very few students on the rolls and do not pay their teachers the prescribed scales of pay. In some cases, the salaries have not been paid for several months. The Commission has described the Senate of the University as "noisy, cantankerous and futile". "Its deliberations have been mostly unacademic, lacking in sobriety and dignity and its decisions have mostly been devoid of propriety and financial prudence", it says.

Politics Supreme

Most of the people who appeared before the Commission or answered its questionnaire, were of the view that a number of teachers in the Senate were more interested in politics than in teaching and research. Regarding the Syndicate, the Commission has said that there have been groups warring against each other and the group alignments have shifted from time to time. "The business is carried on amidst noisy scenes and shoutings and bickerings and although the Syndicate sits longer than perhaps any other university, very little constructive work is done".

The Commission has recommended that a committee consisting of experts drawn from the State universities and from outside the State should be appointed to review the entire position in regard to the examination of private candidates. It has recommended that the status of the governing bodies of affiliated colleges should be uniform in all State universities and the State University Commission should be vested with power to weed out sub-standard colleges. It should also lay down stringent conditions for affiliation.

It has also recommended that each State university should have two inspectors to inspect the affiliated colleges periodically and to suggest improvements in academic and financial matters.

Newspaper reports cannot, in point of accuracy or exactitude, rank with judicial pronouncements or with reports of the commissions appointed by the Government to sift evidence and present conclusions. But they cannot be ignored either—though they may present only one side of the medal, for they present at least a section of the news or views and are useful as sidelights. We are giving therefore, an excerpt from page 5 of *Blitz*, (an important English weekly of Bombay) dated October, 14, 1967. It is up to the readers to draw what conclusions they please but the facts as stated in the memorandum of the postgraduate students of the Bombay University do certainly throw a lurid light on the examination system as prevalent in the Indian universities. Nor should these facts be taken as applying to the Bombay University.

alone Perhaps a number of universities are suffering from the type of malady indicated in the following report :

"Abolish Exams or Change the System

By

Blitz Staff Reporter

Bombay This is the examination season, the season dreaded by honest hard working students, thanks to the corrupt practices prevailing among professors, examiners and supervisors not to mention the loopholes in the present examination system

Our slogan **YOUTH POWER**, designed to propel youth into shaping its own destiny out of the chaos created by their elders, has provoked postgraduate students of the country's most outstanding University, Bombay University, to reveal to the country the force which parades under the guise of examinations conducted by Bombay University

Nuisance

The students who have given their collective views have also proposed several correctives which Vice Chancellor Gajendra-gadkar would do well to take note of

The first grievance related to supervisors

*Who don't give correct instructions at examination halls

*Who demoralise good students by requesting them to show their answer papers to the know nothing students

*Who allow students to copy and talk during examinations because they are bribed

*Who daydream and don't attend promptly to the needs of the students

*Who wilfully get some students into trouble

Supervisors have, in short, become an intolerable nuisance.

The second and more serious grievance is against examiners According to students familiar with this problem,

*Examiners are corrupt, dishonest and think they are infallible gods'

*They never go through the examination papers as they don't have the time, and do the work in a poor and shoddy manner, as they are poorly paid

*They are unqualified and half baked They have model answers by the side of them and if the students answers don't conform to the so called model answers, the students are in for a ducking This does not encourage students to be original as their professors often advise them not to try and outsmart the examiners.

*They look at quantity (number of pages) and not quality

*They allow their personal likes and dislikes, as also their communal leanings, to influence their markings

*Most of them are ideologically oriented, so that a student expressing opinions contrary to the examiner's "have had it"

*They are totally oblivious of students' feelings and human considerations

Lop sided

The third grievance is against the examination system as a whole. To show that it is a farce would be an exercise in truisms, but it is a hard fact and in no way constitutes progress of education. With corrupt professors wanting to make an easy buck, leakages of question papers are as frequent as ministerial travels.

The whole system is lop sided, and serious students have no confidence in it. As a supplement to this necessary evil, students suggest the need for an internal system of testing whereby a large percentage of marks, say, 70 per cent should be assigned to regular class work and the rest given for the results of examinations. This would ensure that a student studies throughout the year and does not rely merely on question leakages or tips on probable questions which professors unfortunately encourage."

The above press report provides a key hole view of the internal state of one university. A number of universities would present similar conditions if inside view is permitted full exposure.

We now close this chapter and hope the authorities would implement reforms, which successive Education Commissions have recommended.

CHAPTER XV

TEACHERS' SALARIES

No review of teaching would be complete without reference to teachers. We have given some figures of teachers in Chapter X earlier. We are giving below 3 tables which would show the latest position.

Table I This table gives the number of university colleges, government colleges and private colleges. As we are going to deal separately with the salaries of teachers in (i) university teaching departments and university colleges and (ii) in affiliated colleges, it would be worth while to cast a glance at the comparative figures of various types of colleges, and observe that the number of private and affiliated colleges preponderates and it is really here that the shoe pinches most for the grades of salaries in some of the affiliated colleges are sub standard.

Table II Gives the number of men and women teachers from 1949-50 to 1956-57.

Table III Gives the number of professors, readers, lecturers etc. in the faculties of arts, commerce and law (social science subjects) in 1965-66.

Table IV Gives an idea of the number of senior teachers, lecturers etc. in affiliated colleges.

TABLE I

Year	University Colleges	Government Colleges	Private Colleges	Total
1953-54	108	230	513	851
1954-55	104	241	567	912
1955-56	110	273	621	1,004
1956-57	115	305	687	1,107
1957-58	97	322	752	1,171
1958-59	97	342	813	1,252
1959-60		Not Available		
1960-61	99	411	1,027	1,537
1961-62	107	453	1,223	1,783
1962-63	133	472	1,333	1,933
1963-64	128	498	1,485	2,111

TABLE II
*Number of Teachers in Colleges and Universities
 Arts and Science Colleges*

<i>Year</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
1949-50	14,743	1,434
1950-51	16,932	5,398
1951-52	18,480	5,746
1952-53	18,984	2,243
1953-54	20,716	2,489
1954-55	22,987	2,720
1955-56	24,747	3,136
1956-57	27,230	36,00

The above number does *not* include teachers in technical and special colleges

TABLE III
*Distribution of Teaching Staff in Universities in the Faculties of
 Arts, Commerce and Law in 1965-66*

<i>Faculty</i>	<i>Professors</i>	<i>Readers</i>	<i>Lectures</i>	<i>Tutor Demos- trators</i>	<i>Total</i>
Arts	418	749	3,738	208	5,113
Commerce	24	55	363	6	418
Law	31	45	283	—	359

TABLE IV
Distribution of Teaching Staff in Affiliated Colleges, 1965-66

<i>Faculty</i>	<i>Senior Teachers</i>	<i>Lecturers</i>	<i>Tutor Demos- trators</i>	<i>Total</i>
Arts	4,026	23,155	1569	28,750
Commerce	496	2,837	175	3,508
Law	196	472	14	682

Without having an idea about the number of teachers who suffer the inequity of inadequate salaries it would be difficult to visualize the dimensions of the poorly paid sector

And it is just not a question of injustice from the moral point of view for it impinges upon efficiency. The quality of teaching depends amongst other factors upon the quality of teachers and the latter upon what we pay to them. The days of selfless dedication are over. Modern India is different from ancient India when teaching used to be the guiding passion of a section of intellectuals, to whom imparting instruction and creating replicas of their intellectuality and scholarship was as much dear as the birth of a son. The son is the physical image of the father and the disciple used to be the intellectual image of the guru. The creation of a number of reflections of the masters in erudition was the *summum bonum* of ancient Indian preceptors. But that is only past history now. To day the main aim of the ninety nine percent of teachers is to eke out a living. Teaching has become as much mercenary as any other profession. Nor are teachers to blame for it. The economic compulsions have as much crushed the community of teachers as any other class of workers.

The University Education Commission (1949) emphasized the point of teachers' salaries. The Commission described teacher as 'the corner stone of the arch of education' and observed that 'the success of the educational process depends so much on the character and ability of the teachers that in any plan of University Reform the main concern must be for securing an adequate staff with qualifications necessary for the discharge of its many-sided duties'.

Let us have a look at the grades of salaries —

For purposes of discussing teachers' salaries in Indian universities it would be more convenient to classify teachers under two heads (i) those working in the university teaching departments and university colleges, (ii) those working in affiliated colleges.

1. In 1962-63 the scale of salaries in the university colleges and university teaching departments of Agra, Aligarh, Allahabad, Andhra, Banaras (except Central Hindu College), Bombay, Burdwan, Calcutta, Delhi, Gauhati, Gorakhpur, Jabalpur, Jadavapur, Jammu & Kashmir, Jodhpur, Kalyani, Karnatak, Kerala, Kurukshetra, Lucknow, Madras, Marathwada, Nagpur, Punjab, Poona, Punjab, Rajasthan, Saugor, Shri Venkateswar, Vikram and Vishwa Bharati was as follows

Professor	Rs 1000-50-1500
Reader	Rs 700-40-1100
Lecturer	Rs 400-30-640-40-800.

This was generally the scale of salaries in the universities above named. Slight variations in some particulars as existed in some of the universities are noted below :—

In Aligarh the scale of lecturers stopped at Rs. 640/- in the university teaching departments but went upto Rs. 800/- in university colleges. In *Andhra*, the Principal got officiating allowance in addition to Professor's scale of salary. In Jammu and Kashmir the Reader's scale was Rs. 600-50-1000 and that of the Lecturer Rs. 350-30-700. In Kurukshetra there was an additional junior cadre of Tutors in the pay scale of Rs. 300-25-350. In Punjab University also the cadre of Instructor/Tutor had the scale of Rs. 350-25-450-25-600. The Vikram University had two grades of Readers and the junior grade for Readers was Rs. 500-25-800. The Lecturers had two grades: (i) Rs. 300-20-600 and (ii) Rs. 250-20-500.

2. The Universities of Baroda, Gujarat, Mysore, Sardar Vallabh Bhai, and Annamalai had the following scales of salaries :—

Professor	Rs. 800-50-1250
Reader	Rs. 500-25-800
Lecturer	Rs. 250-20-500.

3. The grades of salaries in the other university colleges and university teaching departments were as follows :—

Bhagalpur. Professor Rs. 800-1250, Reader Rs. 350-1000, Lecturer Rs. 200-750.

Magadh. Professor Rs. 850-50-1250, Reader Rs. 350-25-650 EB-35-1000, Lecturer Rs. 200-20-200-25-320-EB-25-670-EB-20-750.

North Bengal, has, as regards salaries, 5 grades of Principals, 2 grades of Senior Lecturers and 4 grades of Lecturers :—

Principal : (i) Rs. 500-50-1500, (ii) Rs. 500-25-750 (iii) Rs. 600-800, (iv) Rs. 300-500, (v) Rs. 300-10-450. Professor/Head of the Department Rs. 400-25-700. Senior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 325-1000 (ii) Rs. 300-600. Lecturer : (i) Rs. 275-650, (ii) Rs. 250-400, (iii) Rs. 150-350, (iv) Rs. 200-500.

Osmania University. Professor : Rs. 900-50-1250. Reader : (i) Rs. 900-40-1100, (ii) Rs. 600-30-900. Lecturer : (i) Rs. 650-30-800, (ii) Rs. 325-25-550-EB-25-650.

Bihar & Ranchi. Principals and Professors : Rs. 850-50-1250. Then there are two scales corresponding to Class I and Class II of Bihar Government service Class I : Rs. 350-25-650-EB-35-1000 Class II Rs. 220-20-320-EB-25-670-20-750.

Utkal. Professor : Two grades : (i) Rs. 800-50-1250, (ii) Rs. 600-40-900. Readers : Rs. 510-30-570-EB-30-690-30-780-EB-40-800. Lecturer : Rs. 260-15-320-20-400-30-520-EB-40-680-50-780.

The above gives a general idea of the scale of salaries as they stood in university teaching departments and university colleges in 1962-63. But we have seen that the number of affiliated colleges is much more than university colleges. And the salary scales in these affiliated colleges are much lower. The position of salaries in the constituent and affiliated colleges, as it was in 1962-63, is being stated below :

Salary Scales in Affiliated Colleges

Agra. Principal : Rs. 850-1200, (ii) Rs. 650-900. Head of the Department : (i) Rs. 350-800, (ii) Rs. 300-600. Senior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 325-625, (ii) Rs. 275-550. Junior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 250-500 (ii) 225-450.

Where the number of affiliated colleges is large and there are different grades in the colleges they have been indicated as (i), (ii) etc.

Allahabad. Associate Colleges : Principal : Rs. 650-900. Head of Department : Rs. 300-600; Senior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 300-600, (ii) Rs. 275-550; Jr. Lecturer Rs. 225-450.

Andhra. Principal : (i) Rs. 500-800, (ii) Rs. 400-800, (iii) Rs. 400-1000 (iv) Rs. 400-600. Senior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 300-600, (ii) Rs. 250-500. Junior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 200-500, (ii) Rs. 150-300.

Banares (Central Hindu College) Principal : Rs. 675 ; Professor/Head of the Department : Rs. 1000-50-1500. Reader/Senior Lecturer : Rs. 700-40-1100, Lecturer : Rs. 400-30-640-40-800. Affiliated Colleges : Principal : (i) Rs. 650-900, (ii) Rs. 500-800. Reader/Senior Lecturer : (i) 300-600. Lecturer : (i) Rs. 225-450, (ii) Rs. 175-350.

Bhagalpur. Principal : Rs. 500-850. Lecturer : Rs. 200-500.

Bihar. Principal : Rs. 500-35-850. Lecturer : Rs. 200-500.

Bombay. Constituent Colleges : Principal : Rs. 600-800. Professor Rs. 350-650. Lecturer : Rs. 250-550.

Burdwan. Principal : Rs. 500-25-700. Senior Lecturer : Rs. 250-10-420-15-450. Lecturer : Rs. 150-10-320-15-350.

Calcutta. Constituent Colleges : Principal : Rs. 350-1200. Professors/Head of the Department : Rs. 300-1200. Senior Lecturer/Asstt. Professor : (i) Rs. 250-450, (ii) Rs. 300-600, (iii) Rs. 140-320, (iv) Rs. 190-400, (v) Rs. 275-650. Lecturers : (i) Rs. 200-500 (ii) Rs. 150-350, (iii) Rs. 125-400, (iv) Rs. 125-300, (v) Rs. 130-300, (vi) Rs. 175-325.

Gauhati. Principal : (i) Rs. 890-1150, (ii) Rs. 600-1000, (iii) Rs. 600-800, (iv) Rs. 450-750, (v) Rs. 350-1600. Head of the Department : (i) Rs. 400-850, (ii) Rs. 350-800, (iii) Rs. 200-600, (iv) Rs. 200-450. Senior Lecturer : Rs. 225-600. Junior Lecturer : (i) Rs. 200-600 (ii) Rs. 225-500, (iii) Rs. 200-450, (iv) Rs. 200-400, (v) Rs. 150-250.

The above different grades existed in various colleges affiliated to the same university

- Gorakhpur* Principal Rs 650 900 Head of the Department Rs 300 600 Senior Lecturer Rs 275 550 Lecturer Rs 225 450
- Gujarat* Principal Rs 600 800 Professor/Head of the Department Rs 400 25 700 Senior Lecturer (i) Rs 300 25 600, (ii) Rs 300 15 600 Lecturer Rs 200 15 320 20 500
- Jabalpur* Principal/Head of the Department Rs 800-40 1000 Senior Lecturer Rs 400-25 550 25 800
- Jammu & Kashmir* Principal Rs 500-40 700 50-1000 Professor Rs 450 30 600 40 800 Senior Lecturer Rs 300 20 360 30 600 Lecturer Rs 250 25 350 30 500
- Kalyani* Principal Rs 500 750 Lecturer Rs 250 400
- Karnatak* Principal (i) Rs 600 1000, (ii) Rs 350 1100 Professor/Head of the Department (i) Rs 600 1000 (ii) Rs 400 900 Reader/Senior Lecturer Rs 300 600 Lecturer Rs 230 500
- Kerala* Principal (i) Rs 500 800 (ii) Rs 600 700 (iii) Rs 425 700 (iv) Rs 300 600 Head of the Department/Senior Lecturer (i) Rs 500-800, (ii) Rs 475 700 (iii) Rs 400 700, (iv) Rs 300 600, Lecturer (i) Rs 250 500, (ii) Rs 200 400
- Kurukshetra* Constituent Colleges Class I Rs 350 1250 Class II Rs 250 750 Class III Rs 200 500 (The same grades as correspond to Punjab Educational Service)
- Lucknow* Constituent Colleges Professor Rs 900 40-1100 Readers (i) Rs 600-30-900, (ii) Rs 500 30 800 Lecturer (i) Rs 350 25-600 (ii) Rs 400 25 650 (iii) Rs 250 700 Junior Lecturer Rs 200 400
- Associate Colleges* Principal Rs 650-40 850 50 900 Senior Lecturer Rs 300 20 500 25 600 Lecturer (i) Rs 225 15 360-15 450, (ii) Rs 275 15 410 20 550, (iii) Rs 200 20 400
- Magadh* Principal Rs 500 35 850 Lecturer Rs 200 20 320 15 340 EB 20 500
- Marathwada* Principal Rs 400 25 700 Professor/Head of the Department Rs 300 20 400-25 600 Lecturer Rs 200-15 380-20 400
- Mysore* Professor (i) Rs 600-40 1000 (ii) Rs 400 30 700-40 900 Reader Rs 300-20 400 25 600 Lecturer Rs 230 20-350 25 500
- Nagpur* Principal (i) Rs 350-1100 (ii) Rs 600-40 800 (iii) Rs 360 25 600 Professor/Head of the Department (i) Rs 300-1100 (ii) Rs 400 700 Senior Lecturer (i) Rs 300 600 (ii) Rs 250 500 Lecturer (i) Rs 200 650, (ii) Rs 250-350, (iii) Rs 200-500
- Osmania University* Principal Rs 600 800 Head of the Department Rs 400 25 700 Senior Lecturer Rs 300 25 600 Lecturer Rs 200 15 320 20 500

- Punjab.* Principal: Rs 600-40-800 Lecturer: Rs. 200-15-320-20-500.
- Poona.* Principal has the same grade as Professor plus Special Pay of Rs. 100/-. Professor : Rs. 300-20-400-25-600. Assistant Professor: Rs. 250-15-430-20-450 Lecturer: Rs. 200-15-380-20-400.
- Panjab.* Principal : (i) Rs. 350-1200, (ii) Rs. 600-40-800. Senior Lecturer: (i) Rs. 350-950, (ii) Rs. 250-750. Lecturer: Rs. 200-15-320-20-500.
- Rajasthan.* Principal (post-graduate college): Rs. 800-50-1200. Principal (Degree College). Rs. 600-40-800. Head of the Department (post-graduate college): Rs. 500-25-700-30-850. Head of the Department (Degree College): Rs 400-25-700. Lecturer : Rs. 250-15-400-25-600.
- Ranchi.* Principal : Rs. 500-35-850. Lecturer : Rs. 200-20-220-15-340-EB-20-500.
- Sardar Vallabh Bhai.* Professor/Head of the Department : Rs. 300-15-400. Lecturer Rs. 200-10-300.
- Saugar.* Principal: (i) Rs. 800-1100, (ii) Rs. 600-750, (iii) Rs. 350-850 (iv) Rs 500-1000, (v) 500-850, (vi) Rs. 500-800, (vii) Rs. 1000-1250, (viii) Rs. 700-1000, (ix) Rs. 750-1000 Head of the Department : Professor : (i) Rs' 350-850, (ii) Rs. 300-600, (iii) Rs. 400-800. Reader/Senior Lecturer/Asstt. Professor : (i) Rs. 350-850, (ii) Rs. 300-600, (iii) Rs 310-600, (iv) Rs. 250-550, (v) Rs 360-700, (vi) Rs. 400-700, (vii) Rs. 250-400. Lecturer: (i) Rs. 225-600, (ii) Rs. 275-575, (iii) Rs. 215-450.
- Shriaji.* Professor/Head of the Department: Rs. 300-20-400-25-600. Asstt. Professor: Rs. 250-15-430-20-450. Lecturer : Rs. 200-15-380-20-400.
- S.N.D.T.* Reader Rs. 700-40-1100 Lecturer : Rs. 400-30-640-40-800. Junior Lecturer: Rs 300-25-350.
- Shri Venkateshwar.* Principal. (i) Rs. 600-40-800, (ii) Rs. 400-30-700. Head of the Department. Rs 400-25-700, (ii) Rs. 250-10-400-25-500 Senior Lecturer: Rs. 300-25-600. Lecturer: (i) Rs. 200-15-320-20-500, (ii) Rs 150-10-200.
- Utkal.* Principal/Professor: (i) Rs. 600-40-909, (ii) Rs. 600-40-800 (iii) Rs. 300-20-320-25-420-30-570-EB-30-600-EB-30-780-EB-40-960. Head of the Department/Reader: (i) Rs. 300-20-320-25-420-30-570-EB 60-30-780-EB-40-860 (ii) Rs. 400-25-700. Senior Lecturer (i) Rs 300-25-600, (ii) 200-15-322-20-500, (iii) Rs, 260-15-320-30-400-EB-30-520-EB-40-680-50-780
- Vikram* Principal : (i) Rs 1100-30-1160-40-1200, (ii) Rs. 1000-40-1200, (iii) Rs 850-50-1150, (iv) Rs. 700-40-900. Head of the Department/Professor (i) Rs 500-30-800, (ii) 400-25-425-550-30-700-30-850 25-950, (iii) Rs. 400-20-500-25-750, (iv) Rs 310-15-340-20-500 Asstt Professor/Senior Lecturer: (i) Rs. 360-15-405-20-425-25-550-25-700 (ii) Rs. 300-20-600 Lecturer (i) Rs. 275-15-300-15-405-20-425-25-575, (ii) Rs 250-25-550, (iii) Rs. 250-15-450, (iv) Rs. 150-10-250.

Gujarat Vidyapeeth Principal Rs 400-700 Lecturer (i) Rs. 150-10 200-15-320 20-400, (ii) Rs 275-10-300-20 400.

The University Grants Commission in its annual report for 1964-65 stated —

“The University Grants Commission has been of the opinion that everything possible should be done to attract a reasonable proportion of our men and women of high intellectual ability to the teaching profession. The provision of reasonable salaries and the essential amenities and incentives for the teaching profession is necessary to enable Universities and Colleges to recruit and retain sufficiently qualified staff. This must be regarded as the basic pre-requisite for the maintenance of proper standards of education.”

The University Grants Commission has been providing assistance to Universities for introduction of the following scales of pay —

Professor.	Rs. 1000 50-1500
Reader	Rs 700-40-1100
Lecturer	Rs 400-30 640-40-800
Instructors	Rs 300 25-350

The following 39 Universities had till 1964-65 agreed to introduce the above-mentioned pay scales. —

Agra	Gujarat	Nagapur
Aligarh	Jabalpur	Osmania
Allahabad	Jadavpur	Panjab
Andhra	Jodhpur	Patna
Banaras	Kalyani	Poona
Baroda	Karnatak	Rajasthan
Bhagalpur	Kerala	Ranchi
Bihar	Kurukshetra	Sardar Vallabhbhai
Bombay	Lucknow	Vidyapeeth
Burdwan	Madras	Sagaur
Calcutta	Magadh	S N D.T.
Delhi	Marathwadh	Shri Venkateshwar
Gauhati	Mysore	Vishwa Bharati
Gorakhpur		

Since then, some more universities have followed suit

The Education Commission (1964-66) has been the latest eminent authority on matters of education and we are giving below excerpts which have a bearing on the subject for the Commission's observations represent the most authentic view, on points they have discussed.

For facility of reference the para numbers of the report have also been stated :

3 03

*Average Annual Salaries of Teachers in India
(1950-51 to 1965-66)*

Type of Institutions	Average annual salary of teachers (at current prices) in				Average annual salary in 1965 66 at 1950 51 prices
	1950 51	1955 56	1960-61	1965 66	
Higher Education					
1 University Departments	3,759 (100)	5,476 (145)	5,475 (146)	6,500 (173)	3,939 (105)
2 Colleges of arts & science	2,696 (100)	3,070 (114)	3,659 (136)	4,000 (148)	2,424 (90)
3 Professional colleges	3,948 (100)	3,861 (98)	4,237 (107)	6,410 (162)	3,885 (98)
Cost of living index for working class	100	95	123	165	
National income per head of popu- lation (at current prices)	267 (100)	255 (96)	326 (122)	424 (159)	

N B : The figures within brackets give the index of growth on the basis of 1950-51-100

3 06 The Commission made a study of the remuneration of teachers in all the States and Union Territories. It revealed two major weaknesses :

(1) *Inter-State Differences* There are substantial differences in the remuneration of teachers from State to State.

(2) *Intra-State Differences* Even within a State, there are variations in remuneration. At the university stage salaries vary from faculty to faculty. The teachers in affiliated colleges do not have the same scales of pay as those in universities ..

There has been a strong demand for the abolition of these variations. It has been suggested that the first type of variation can be eliminated or reduced to the minimum by adopting national scales of pay with adjustment in allowances for inevitable local variations in the cost of living and that the second should be offset by adopting the principle of parity. Both these proposals need a closer examination.

3 08 *National Scales of Pay* The demand for the introduction of national scales of pay for all categories of teachers is supported unanimously by teachers' organizations. We found that the proposal had a ready acceptance in higher education because of the developments in the post-independent period. The University Education Commission recommended that the multiplicity of scales of pay which then existed in the universities and colleges should be reduced to the minimum and that an attempt should be made to adopt national scales of pay for teachers in higher education. This recommendation was broadly accepted and some action to implement it has since been taken. The UGC is attempting to introduce common scales of pay for different categories of teachers in the universities and similar scales of pay for teachers in affiliated colleges. Attempts for the introduction of common scales of pay are also being made with a fair amount of success, in respect of engineering institutions. It is true that in spite of all that has been done during the last ten years, there are still considerable variations in the scales of pay of teachers in higher education. But the important point is that the general principle of adopting national scales of pay has been broadly accepted, and all that is needed is to make a more determined effort to move forward on the lines already set. This is a comparatively simpler issue.

3 09 *Principle of Parity* With regard to the intra-State differences we recommended that the remuneration of teachers working under different managements should also be the same and that all teachers having the same qualifications and the same responsibilities should have the same, or at least similar remuneration and conditions of work and service.

- (i) *Higher Education* There is a good deal of disparity in the remuneration of teachers of different categories in higher education. For instance, the remuneration of teachers in different faculties is not the same: the teachers in the faculties of engineering and medicine are paid higher than those in humanities. There is also a difference in most parts of the country, between the salaries given to teachers in universities and those given to teachers in affiliated colleges. In many States, teachers in government colleges do not get the scales of pay given to university teachers, although their remuneration is often much better than that of teachers in affiliated colleges. We recommend that these differences should be reduced to the minimum and efforts made to eliminate them gradually.

3 10. *General Principles for Revision of Salaries.* In making our proposals for the revision of the remuneration of teachers we have kept the following principles in view

- (i) At the university stage the remuneration of teachers should be broadly comparable with that of the senior

services of the Government so that a fair proportion of the top talent in the country is attracted to the profession of teaching and research. What is important here is that the salary of a vice chancellor should be about the same as that of a Secretary to the Union Government, the maximum salary of a university professor should be the same as the maximum in the senior scale of the IAS, and for outstanding professors, higher salaries comparable to super-time scales of pay of the IAS should be available.

3.11 *Recommendations on Salaries of Teachers* In the light of these general principles we propose the following scales of pay —

Teachers	Remuneration
Teachers in affiliated colleges }	<i>Lecturer</i>
	Junior scale Rs 300 25 600
	Senior scale Rs 400 30 640 40-800
	Senior Lecturer/Reader
	Rs 700-40 1100
	Principal I Rs 700-40 1100
	II Rs 800 50-1250
	III Rs 1000-50-1500

NB The proportion of lecturers in the senior scale to those in the junior scale should be progressively improved. By the end of the fifth plan, this proportion should be raised to about 75% on an average.

Teachers in university departments }	Lecturers	Rs 400 40-800 50-950
	Reader	Rs 700 50 1250
	Professor	Rs 1100-50 1300-60 1600

NB (1) The proportion of junior to senior posts (*i.e.* Readers/Professors) is about 3 : 1 at present in the universities (the corresponding ratio for affiliated colleges is 5 : 1). We should gradually move in the direction of raising it to 2 : 1.

(2) One third of the professors should be in the senior scale of Rs 1600-1800. Special scales should be introduced for exceptionally meritorious persons and in selected centres of advanced studies.

3.12 *Some Specific Proposals for Reform at the University Stage* As a result of the recommendations of the University Education Commission and the work done by the UGC during the last ten years considerable improvement has been made in regard to the scales of pay of teachers at the university stage. The multiplicity of scales which existed in the past has been reduced and the new scales adopted are more comparable to those in the senior administrative services of the Government of India. National

scales of pay have been suggested for teachers in universities and in affiliated colleges and these are being increasingly adopted by the institutions concerned. We also welcome the recent decision of the Government of India, on the recommendation of the UGC, to sanction the new scales of pay for university teachers which have been indicated above. The main points to be considered in this context, therefore, are two (a) implementation of these proposals, and (b) relating them to improvement in quality and qualifications of teachers.

3.13 To facilitate the introduction of these scales at an early date and especially in private institutions which are so numerous we recommend that assistance from the Centre be provided to meet the additional expenditure on a sharing basis of 80 per cent from the Central funds and 20 per cent by the State Government and that, in the case of private colleges, the Central assistance may even be provided on a 100 per cent basis. Such assistance should continue during the fourth plan period; and, in the meanwhile, steps may be taken by the State Governments to devise an appropriate system of grant in aid for placing the revised scales on a permanent basis. [Our proposals on this subject have been discussed elsewhere (Chapter XIII of the Commission's Report).]

Teachers in Universities In regard to the qualifications and selection procedures for university teachers we agree with the recommendations made by the Model Act Committee which we quote for ready reference.

3.20 *Promotional Prospects* Unfortunately the promotional prospects for teachers are poor at almost all stages, and it is this aspect rather than the scales of pay as such that often deter talented persons from joining the profession. Steps should therefore be taken to see that good promotional prospects are provided at all stages of education, not only for improving qualifications, but for rewarding good teaching. For this, we make the following proposals —

University Stage The following measures may be considered —

- (a) An ad hoc temporary post in the higher grade should be created for a lecturer or a reader who has done outstanding work and who cannot be given his well-earned promotion because no suitable posts are vacant. He should then be absorbed against an appropriate permanent post as soon as it becomes available. Before such promotions are made, the work of the persons concerned should be evaluated by a specially constituted expert committee and the approval of the UGC obtained. An arrangement of this type already exists in the CSIR and ICAR.
- (b) In some departments where outstanding work is done the number of posts at the professors' level should be

determined on the requirements of the department and should not be arbitrarily restricted to one

- (c) If the services of an outstanding person are to be retained or obtained at the professional level, it should be open to the university concerned, in consultation with the UGC, to offer a suitable remuneration even beyond the special scale of Rs 1600-1800. Each case should be considered on its merits and considerable elasticity should be permitted in fixing salaries.

3.21 *Relating Salaries to Costs of Living* Two other points which have often been raised in the discussions with us, deserve notice. The first of these relates to the adjustments in salaries consequent upon a rise in prices. It has been suggested that after salaries have been revised adequately in line with present price levels, a mechanical formula should be adopted to adjust them to future movements in the cost of living as has been done, for instance, in the case of industrial workers. While we realize the need to link salaries with the cost of living we think that this can be better done through the principle of parity. We have recommended that all salaries of teachers should be revised every five years, and we have also recommended the principle of parity under which the dearness allowance to be paid to all teachers should be related to those of government servants. This will ensure adequate adjustments of salaries and allowances to movements in cost of living.

3.25 A study of the salary structure in educationally advanced countries reveals some interesting points. In some countries, e.g., the USSR, teaching is among the best professions. In most of them, a wage comparable with other professions is assured. Salaries at the university level are generally high enough to attract a reasonable proportion of the best talent in the country. The gap between the salaries of university and school teachers is narrow. Even the highest salaries show a reasonable relationship to the national dividend, and the salary is related, not so much to the institution in which the teacher works, as to his qualifications. It is because of these factors that these countries can support large expansion of education and also attract a fair proportion of talented persons to the teaching profession.

3.26 The reorganisation of the salary structure for teachers on these lines is not generally feasible in a developing country where the general situation is exactly the opposite. For instance

- the salaries of teachers are higher with reference to the national dividend,
- the salaries of teachers compare unfavourably with those of other public servants which are even higher, and
- there are wide differences between the salaries of teachers at different levels.

The basic reason for this situation is that the salaries of the superior ranks in government service are fixed very high without any reference to the economic capacity of the people. The origin of this is often purely historical, as in our own country. Under the imperial regime, the salaries of the superior government servants were fixed, not in relation to the national dividend of the Indian people, but with reference to salaries prevailing in England. Consequently, salaries of the superior government servants (who were mostly Englishmen) came to be far above the economic capacity of the Indian people. Even when Indians were recruited to government services, these salaries were not reduced because it was not politically expedient to make any marked distinction between them and the expatriate officers. Hence the salaries of government servant as a class came to be fixed at a much higher level than what the country could afford. This position did not create any difficulties so long as the total volume of governmental services was limited, but it soon became the main bottleneck preventing the proper development of all social services in general and of education in particular. A solution was, therefore, attempted by the adoption of three questionable devices

- Even in the government service, the teachers were paid lower than other categories of employees who had the same (or even inferior) qualifications and responsibilities,
- The bulk of educational enterprise was placed not in the public or State sector, but under local bodies and in the private sector,
- The principle of parity was rejected and teachers in local authority and private schools were paid at lower rates

We have recommended that these dubious methods should be given up forthwith. If this is done and all teachers are to be paid adequately and on the basis of parity, there are only two ways in which the problem can be solved—either the salaries of all government servants should be reduced—which cannot be done unless all incomes are regulated—or the expansion of education will have to be restricted. Since the latter is neither desirable nor possible, the basic dilemma becomes clear, the State is not able to regulate all incomes and reduce the salaries of other public servants, and it does not have the money to give justice to teachers by raising their salaries to a level comparable to that of other Government servants.

3.27 The only rational way out of the situation would be to revise all salaries and base them, not on the historical legacies of the past, but on our needs for services and the economic capacity of our society to bear the financial burden. This would imply a substantial downgrading of many salaries and a drastic levelling down of other incomes. If such attempts were made, teachers

would be ready to play their part, although they resist, and rightly so, any attempt to keep their salaries only at a lower level.

Here end the observations of the Education Commission 1964-66. We would like to end this chapter with the above observations, but must state that even the scales of salaries recommended are not sufficient to draft the cream of intelligentsia into teaching service.

As long ago as 1921, a similar idea was mooted, that unless the scales of salary of teachers in universities ranked with the higher services in the educational field there would be little temptation for the best brains to enter the field of education. It is true some people have preference for the teaching line, irrespective of emoluments and they find teaching more congenial temperamentally than any other line, but such inborn predilections apart, the teaching line should be financially tempting to attract the best of talents. And with such a background of reasoning the scale of salaries in newly started universities, such as Lucknow, were fixed as follows —

Professors	Rs 1000-1500
Readers	Rs 500-1000
Lecturers	Rs 250- 500

In those days, the purchasing power of the rupee was good and the above scales of salaries were attractive enough. But the purchasing power of the rupee has unfortunately so much slumped down that these figures have little relevance, in terms of satisfying the needs of a family now.

The cost of living index has been going up steadily as the following table would show —

1914	=100
1938 1939	=102
1940-1941	=123
1941 1942	=144
1942 1943	=212
1943 1944	=393
1945 1946	=373
1947 1948	=434
1948 1949	=542
1949 1950	=550
1950-1951	=603

In 1950-51 the consumer price index was again taken as the base and the comparative consumers' price index numbers (working class) have risen spirally as follows —

<i>Year</i>	<i>Bombay</i>	<i>Calcutta</i>	<i>Delhi</i>	<i>Madras</i>
1950-51	100	100	100	100
1951-52	104	102	107	105
1952-53	109	96	106	102
1953-54	115	97	105	108
1954-55	113	93	101	103
1955-56	106	90	99	99
1956-57	112	99	110	112
1957-58	118	104	111	116
1958-59	126	103	116	125
1959-60	132	110	117	134
1960-61	139	111	119	144
1961-62	151	114	126	147
1962-63	140	120	128	149
1963-64	145	—	—	152
1964-65	160	—	—	165

During the last two years, there has been galloping inflation. The all India figure for September, 1967 is 214. The purchasing power of the rupee has dwindled so much that even a salary of Rs 1,000 has the purchasing power of about Rs 150/ or less. It is difficult to imagine the pitiable state of poverty of most of the teachers. The condition in affiliated colleges is worse. It is to give a peephole into the economic misery of the Indian teachers that detailed figures of salaries have been provided in preceding pages.

The intrinsic value of the Indian rupees has been reduced to less than fifteen naya paisa !

CHAPTER XVI

STUDENT UNREST

The report on the teaching of social sciences in Indian universities would be incomplete if we do not give a glimpse of the student unrest and the baneful influence it has exerted, and is exerting over studies. The teachers, the taught, what is taught and how it is taught are the four sides of the quadrangle. What is taught has been dealt with in subsequent chapters at length—we have made an attempt to give in detail as far as limitations of space would permit—the syllabi prescribed for the various disciplines. But the factor of 'the taught', that is students, constitutes an important pivot on which, in a way, turns the whole super-structure of higher education, and the student unrest has been assuming such an alarming posture that it has vitiated the entire university atmosphere. Note is taken in these pages, that the present report is not only for the benefit of Indian readers, but a large number of foreigners seeking information on points connected with teaching in India and while for the first category of readers, we may not take pains of quoting chapter and verse, for they are all too familiar with the waves of student indiscipline which are rising higher and higher and submerging increasingly the high-land of education, we have to acquaint our foreign readers with the gruesome picture that the restiveness has created, for to this category of readers detailed daily press reports in India are so easily available and what small items filter through a variety of news services and appear in their papers are much too inadequate to give a graphic picture of the increasing dimensions of the dynamic revolt that is seething in the student community in India.

We shall first quote Shri P B Gajendragadkar, retired Chief Justice of India, who is now the Vice Chancellor of the Bombay University. In his foreword dated 9.12.1966 to the 'Politics of Mass Violence' edited by S P Aiyar, he states

" On March 16, 1966 the police had to open fire in Madhya Pradesh on a violent mob which consisted mainly of students who were determined to protest against the suspension of the Higher Secondary Examination following the leakage of some question papers. Ever since then we have witnessed explosion of violence in different places and unfortunately in these violent explosions students have participated in a large measure

" *The unrest among the students and the explosion of violence to which it led can be regarded as a part of the general unrest from which the community at large is suffering today.* In regard to the students of our universities, besides the factors to which I have just referred there are certain other factors special to the university life which may have played their part in aggravating

the situation. Where students live in large numbers in the campus of the university, the corporate life may lead to the development of healthy tendencies or may result in restlessness among the students. Our methods of education need to be revised, our system of examinations suffers from some infirmities, our administration of universities is often charged with irregularities, and there appears to be lack of understanding and imagination on the part of teachers and university administrators, in some cases lack of communication between the student community and the teachers can also be said to be the general feature of university life where violence has erupted. Political parties sometimes take part in encouraging if not instigating troubles in the campuses. The presence of professional students who are more interested in propagating their political ideology and the policy and philosophy of the political party to which they belong is also a contributory factor. I feel that it would be worth while for sociologists to make a thorough inquiry into the recent cases of students' violence. If an enquiry is properly made it would be possible for us to find out reasons which led to the explosion of students' anger in the last four months."

The observations coming as they do from a retired Chief Justice bear the stamp of authenticity as well as dispassionate judgment. But an inference by howsoever high quarters cannot give a full idea of the details and the depth of malady or how wide is the rampage and the extent of devastation it has caused.

Universities have been closed down for months. The colleges have had to shut down their doors. The violence by students has been so compelling that it was physically impossible to keep open universities and the large number of colleges situated in the trouble zone where the student community threw law and order to the four winds and resorted, to the full, to physical force and intimidation. Fire and arson in a university campus have become frequent. Long pitched battles between the police and the students no longer surprise Indian newspaper readers. Whether the police should enter a university campus only when called or permitted to do so by the vice chancellor and thus abdicate the normal duties of maintaining law and order or function normally in the areas, which are the trouble-spots—or not, whether they be educational institutions, has assumed a controversy and become a debating point in our legislatures and houses of parliament. Nor have the student community contained to any particular locality or area their battles with the forces of law and order. Roads and streets have been unsafe due to hooliganism and the cinemas, restaurants and public places have also had to hear the brunt of senseless destruction. The student frenzy has at times generated mob-violence and on not a few occasions one has been wondering whether one is reading of misbehaviour by Indian students in some part of India or an

account of Indonesian students, who are a political force in that country or of the Chinese red guards bringing about, at the point of bayonet, a cultural revolution. We would, however, not like our readers to accept our observations as the last word on the subject. There is nothing so reliable as a statement by a third party and we are giving below some excerpts from the press during the three weeks of September, 1967. Obviously, it is not possible to cover here the entire period of eleven years 1956-67 and we are, therefore, confining references in the press, to the disturbances during September, 1967 or thereabout. Below is a press report as published in the *Statesman* dated 24.9.1967.

Delhi, Kotah, Jaipur, Mathura, Calcutta

Student Trouble in 5 Cities

Curfew in Indore, Troops Alerted

Delhi Buses Stoned Arrests in Kotah

Differing factors led to student trouble in five widely distant major cities on Saturday. Indore saw the worst, with students attacking students, tension and troops being alerted. Calcutta came off lightly with a Senate meeting being adjourned after diatribes by student leaders and a scuffle for possession of the microphone.

Delhi students didn't "miss" the bus, their stones, found the mark. Lathis and tear gas were used to disperse a student mob which menaced the Collectorate at Balasore. Many policemen were injured by stones. Kotah students were on the rampage, demanding that the pass mark be reduced from 45 to 33%. Section 144 Cr P C seemed to have quietened things down.

To begin at the beginning a 19 hour curfew says UNI was enforced in Indore and the army alerted at 10.45 a.m. on Saturday when a mob of students of a college tried to defy the prohibitory order. Earlier, there were violent clashes between students and police pickets holding them back. The police used canes to disperse the students. The Superintendent of police Mr S P Mishra, and the Collector Mr R P Kapoor, sustained injuries. There was tension on Friday following a clash between students of two Indore colleges. Early on Saturday the Rajmata of Gwalior told one group of students not to take the law into their own hands and promised an inquiry into the clash, but to no avail. The situation worsened when 200 students reported to have been armed with bamboo sticks and knives attacked a rival group of students, resulting in 35 students being injured, five seriously.

The M P Deputy Chief Minister, Mr V K Saklecha, who left Bhopal is now in Indore. An additional police force is being sent to Indore. The Chief Minister, Mr Govind Narain Singh, is in touch with Indore. Sixty five people, including 16 students, had been arrested till Saturday evening.

Prior to the curfew, police reported that students held up a passenger train and a goods train and stoned them. The

Rajmata* was reported mobbed by students on her way back to the Residency after her address to students of the Gujarati College. A member of her party said her car was hit and some damage caused but the Rajmata escaped unhurt. The Rajmata, who arrived in Indore late on Friday night was due to leave for Bombay by air on Saturday morning but has cancelled her trip.

Delli Student violence spread to colleges in different parts of the city. Students of an engineering college in Kashmere Gate set fire to a thatched roof in the college premises and broke window panes in the college building. They are reported to have obstructed the fire brigade and stoned the fire fighting units. Timely action by police prevented serious damage. Several DTU buses were stoned in Kalkaji. Glass panes of the buses were smashed. The students are reported to have done this because of the 'misbehaviour' of a bus conductor. A large crowd of students collected outside a college in Lodi Road, scene of Friday's disturbances. Police officials asked them to go into the college as section 144 has been imposed in the area. They did so, but a few stones were thrown from behind the college wall.

Jaispur An order under section 144 Cr P C has been promulgated in two localities of Kotah following the strike by polytechnic students for the fourth day on Saturday. Four persons, including two students were arrested. The students want the pass mark reduced from 45 to 33%, also that the result declared in May be amended accordingly. Twelve students of the polytechnic arrested for allegedly destroying or damaging college property, have been released on bail. Students of Udaipur Polytechnic are on strike in sympathy with the Kotah students. Students of Jodhpur polytechnic have been on strike since Friday.

Mathura About 400 students of an intermediate college smashed several tubelights and English signboards on shops in Mathura on Saturday evening. The students were protesting against the imposition of English. They fled when the police made a lathi charge.

Calcutta Our Calcutta office reports that for the first time in the history of Calcutta University, a meeting of the Senate broke up in confusion on Saturday after a scramble by rival student groups for an opportunity to vent their grievances before the Senate. Following demonstrations by students before the meeting began a member requested the Vice-Chancellor, Mr B Malik, to permit a student representative to read out a petition. But the meeting had to be adjourned after four to five minutes when petitions gave way to speeches.

*The mother of His Highness Gwalior

by student leaders, followed in turn by scuffles for possession of microphone

A special convocation was held before the meeting to confer an honorary D Litt posthumously on Mr Satish Chandra Ghosh. The convocation, in which the Governor Mr Dharma Vira, was present went off peacefully, but the students who were waiting in the campus for the function to end shouted slogans describing the Governor as "a CIA agent" when he was getting into his car. The demonstration was now on in earnest. Groups of students shouted slogans condemning the Vice Chancellor, Registrar and treasurer of the University as "CIA agents" and criticised the Calcutta University Act as "undemocratic". They demanded that the university should dissociate itself from the Ford Foundation. Groups of demonstrators soon converged on Darbhanga Hall where the Senate meeting was to begin.

Vociferous

The shouting became more vociferous as other groups of students, including girls, went up the stairs to Darbhanga Hall. Many went inside, and for a time, half a dozen different slogans were heard. The members of the Senate sat in silence. One member, Professor Rajkumar Chakravarty suggested that a student should be allowed to read a petition. A petition was read by a commerce student, then came one from students of ancient Indian history and culture, a third condemned the Calcutta University Act.

Professor Chakravarty, at this stage, appealed to the students to leave, but another member Professor Nirmal Chandra Bhattacharya argued that since the Senate had agreed to hear some petitions, it ought to permit the other students to have their say. The demonstrators cheered the professor and extempore speeches took over. Professor Dalip Chakravarty protested the personal attacks on a particular teacher. Pandemonium began with rival groups struggling to grab the microphone. With the situation deteriorating fast, Dr A. B. Mukherjee proposed an adjournment motion which was seconded. The Senate was adjourned until October 6 and the members left the hall.

- **Cuttack** Police used lathis and teargas to disperse students who had entered the Collectorate at Balasore and had ransacked furniture. About 50, including 35 policemen, 'the Superintendent and Deputy Superintendent of Police and the District Magistrate of Balasore were injured. Some of the injured have been admitted to hospital'.

Let us have a look at Rajasthan—how students behaved during the three weeks. Some press reports from *Indian Express* are given below.

Alwar Students Teargassed

Jaipur September 6 The anti English agitation gripping the world of education in Rajasthan took a violent turn today with the police using teargas to disperse a crowd of students at the Alwar station. The police was reported to have fired teargas shells when the students became rowdy and started pelting stones at trains. It had even to fire some shots in the air when the students proceeded from there to the post office. A number of arrests have been made in this connection and the situation is stated to be under control. The demands of the students included making English an optional subject at the degree level and the opening of post graduate classes at Alwar college. The State Government has already decided to open these classes from the next academic session.

32 Held in Alwar

Jaipur, September 7 Thirty two persons, including 12 students, were arrested by the police yesterday in Alwar in connection with the violent incidents at the railway station and the post office. The 12 students were however released on bail today while the others were reported to be still in custody. Their agitation is against English and for the opening of postgraduate classes in Alwar. According to official sources, the students pelted stones at trains and damaged a signal at the station yesterday, thus forcing the police to use teargas to disperse them. These anti-English agitators were also reported to have pelted stones at the post office whereupon the police fired a few shots in the air to scare them away. The students observed a black day in Alwar today in protest against the arrest of their colleagues. They wore black arm bands to display their annoyance. Life was otherwise reported to be normal with shops working as usual. The shops were closed yesterday when the news of tear gasing the students and of rowdyism spread in the town.

Bikaner

Jaipur September 8 Bikaner college students, including girls, observed one day token strike today to protest against what they called anti Hindi policy of Rajasthan Government. They support the stand taken by Jaipur and Udaipur students against retaining of English. They took out a procession and demonstrated before the collectorate and dispersed peacefully after submitting a memorandum to the Collector.

Rajasthan Students to End Strike

Jaipur, September 9 According to present indications, the present anti English agitation now going on in Rajasthan will in all probability be withdrawn, especially when the university has decided not to count the marks of general English, general Hindi

and general education or history of Indian civilisation and culture in the divisions of students now in the first year. They would, however, have to clear these three compulsory subjects before their final year results are declared.

Stir Over English

'Quit Hostel' Notice to Students

Jaipur, September 11 The Rajasthan University authorities today ordered degree college students in Jaipur to vacate the hostels as a crowd of about three hundred anti English agitators attacked the office of the Director of the College Education of the State Government Mr R S Kapur. At noon today about three hundred students of Maharaja's College marched to the university campus and demonstrated here. Later they attacked the office of the Director of College Education, pelted stones and smashed window panes. They also damaged the car of the Director and about sixty cycles parked in the office premises. The agitators shouted slogans 'Mr Kapur Murdabad' and even threatened to set fire to the office building. The situation was however averted by Mr Kapur and his Deputy Director who refused police intervention. Some employees were also reported to have received minor injuries as a result of stone pelting. The students virtually 'gheraoed' the office of Director for about three hours. About 12,000 students came this morning to attend their classes but were disappointed to find that the college was being closed again under instructions from Rajasthan University. In a statement Mr Damodar Lal Vyas, Home Minister, condemned the attack on the office of the Director of College Education and said that it did not "behave the students". The Home Minister warned that the State Government would not tolerate such acts of rowdyism and violence and would not hesitate to take stern legal action against those indulging in such illegal activities.

Anti English Stir Takes New Turn

Jaipur, September 12 The anti English agitation now going on in Rajasthan, took a new turn here today when students of a local college started erasing the number plates in English of private vehicles with coal tar. According to official sources they disfigured about 60 such number plates. About 400 students earlier marched in a procession to Rajasthan University campus and damaged two English sign boards with the inscription 'The University of Rajasthan'.

Rajasthan Varsity Closes Colleges

Jaipur, September 13 The anti English agitation now going on here has forced the University of Rajasthan to close all its

1. Murdabad — a slogan demanding death as vindication

2. Gherao — a new word coined during this year. It means encircling a person or place by a crowd in a threatening manner and thus illegally confine a person or place.

colleges and postgraduate teaching classes with effect from tomorrow till October 2. The four university colleges are Maharaja's, Maharaja's, Rajasthan and Commerce. The university authorities and teachers, it further said, were shocked at the manner in which the students had conducted their agitation. It said "These student agitators have resorted to unconstitutional methods like disrupting the postgraduate classes which were otherwise functioning smoothly." The university also expressed shock at the treatment meted out to Mr R. S. Kapur, Director of College Education. Meanwhile, about 800 students today took out a procession and damaged some cinema and private hoardings written in English. They also threatened to disfigure English hoardings again if the traders and others did not remove them within two or three days' time. The State Government has already advised principals of Government and aided colleges in the State to close their institutions if they apprehend any student trouble.

Anti English Stir Continues

Jaipur, September 14. The anti English agitation launched by the degree college students here is continuing despite the closure of Rajasthan University. The students of boys' college today forced the closure of local schools. Earlier, they held a protest meeting and continued their campaign for the removal of hoardings in English. Batches of students went round the city and tried to persuade the traders to replace their English boards by Hindi.

Polytechnics Closed

Jaipur, September 27 (PTI) Polytechnics in Jodhpur, Udaipur, Bikaner, Alwar and Bharatpur have been closed for an indefinite period following strike by students in support of their demands, according to reports received here . "

September is generally an uncontroversial month, it does not synchronise with the commencement of the academic year nor with its close and we have picked out September, 1967 only at random, to acquaint our readers with the student disturbances. Let us have a look at Delhi—how the capital of India fared in this respect

'Upset' Delhi M A Students Gherao Vice-Chancellor

New Delhi, September 7 The agitation of the failed M A students (who are demanding a revival of the III Division) took a serious turn today when they gheraoed members of the University Academic and Executive Councils, including the Vice Chancellor, Registrar and Proctor, for over seven hours. At midnight students were still squatting outside the Council Hall refusing to let the university officials leave. Matters came to a head today with the Academic Council's decision that M A 'Pass' degrees would not be awarded to those students who have secured less than 50 per cent marks in the past two years. For over two months the Academic Council had debated the feasibility and implications of such a move, and finally decided against it at today's meeting. The University Executive Council which met immediately after, also endorsed the view that the present rule requiring M A students to obtain 50 per cent marks to pass would continue to operate.

Slogans

This, however, did not satisfy the hundred odd students who had gathered outside the Council Hall hoping to hear that the university would grant III division degrees with retrospective effect from 1965. These wishful thoughts when frustrated erupted into a violent demonstration outside the university office, slogans were shouted condemning practically all the senior university officials. When the Academic Council meeting started at 4 p.m. about two hundred students staged 'dharna' outside, determined that they would not let the Council members leave unless the matter was finally decided one way or another.

A few dozen girls also took part in the somewhat rowdy proceedings that followed, for when the decision was taken, contrary to their expectations violent shouting followed. Some flower pots were smashed and dire threats aired.

College Strike Off

New Delhi, September 7 The students of Hastinapur College who went on strike here yesterday called it off unconditionally

today and returned to their classes. The students demanded the immediate formation of a college union and the relaxation of rigid rules.

Students' Ultimatum

New Delhi, September 8. The Action Committee of (failed) M A students, Delhi University, decided today that the hunger-strike by one of its members will continue indefinitely. The Action Committee has given the university authorities 10 days to retract from its 'unjustified' stand, in the absence of which it has threatened a 'general strike'. This comes as a sequel to the gberao and dbarna* which followed yesterday's Academic Council meeting which decided against the granting of M A 'Pass' (third division) degrees with retrospective effect from 1965.

Students Boycott Classes

New Delhi, September 11. Students of the Pusa Polytechnic boycotted their classes here today. The students had earlier submitted a memorandum to the Principal demanding better medical facilities, common room and drinking water. An ultimatum was also submitted by the students to the Directorate of technical education indicating that they would boycott their classes if the demands were not fulfilled shortly.

Goondas Raid College Hostel

New Delhi, September 14. The students of Delhi College of Engineering in Kashmiri Gate have decided to observe a one-day token strike tomorrow to protest against harassment at the hands of local goondas. The students allege that undesirable elements of the Kashmiri gate area frequently visit the college canteen, where they beat up students and smash furniture.

College Students to Approach Jha

New Delhi, September 17. The student's council of Dayal Singh College today decided to approach the Lt. Governor, Mr. A N Jha, tomorrow to press their demand for a probe into the alleged beating of students and teachers on Friday afternoon by taxi drivers.

The council reiterated its demand for early action against the police officers who allegedly remained indifferent to the students' complaint against a group of taxi drivers. The students alleged that the taxi drivers had beaten them mercilessly.

Angry Students Storm Buses

New Delhi, September 22. Three private buses operated on DTU* routes were damaged today when a crowd of striking

* Dharna—a Hindi word meaning 'obstinately sitting down at a place and continue sitting till the demand is conceded'

* DTU—Delhi Transport Undertaking—a quasi government body under the Municipal Corporation of Delhi

students of Dayal Singh College attacked them with bricks and stones on Lodi Road. The wind screens and glass panes were smashed and seat covers slashed with blades. This was a sequel to a dispute between the conductor of a private bus operated by DTU and a group of students yesterday evening. The conductor was alleged to have misbehaved with the students and heated up some of them. The students of the college stayed away from their classes today and their spokesman said that they would continue their strike till the private buses were withdrawn from the routes serving their college. Of late, altercations between the crew of private buses on charter to DTU and students have become common. This was the third clash between the two, during this week. Earlier incidents had also resulted in strikes in two other institutions.

Polytechnic Assured of All Help

New Delhi, September 24. Education officials of the Delhi Administration today appealed to the striking students of the Kashmiri Gate Polytechnic to call off their strike from tomorrow and assured them that their demands would be sympathetically considered. The students of the polytechnic have been on strike since Thursday to protest against lack of proper facilities for teaching.

Two Delhi Polytechnics Closed

New Delhi, September 25. After fresh incidents of violence by students, the Delhi Administration this evening decided to close for an indefinite period the Pant Polytechnic, near Okhla Industrial Estate, and the Kashmiri Gate Polytechnic. In the morning, the police had to use tear gas to disperse an angry crowd of 400 students of the Pant Polytechnic who had resorted to brick-battling. Several policemen and students were injured in the clash. The principal of the polytechnic was also hit on the leg by a tear gas shell. The police and the student union representatives had their own, but conflicting, versions of the incident which lasted about 45 minutes.

Police Version

When the student mob reached the gates of the CRRI, the police were alleged to have stoned them. Of course, the student leader said, they replied in a like manner. He alleged that the police chased them into the college premises by firing tear gas shells. According to the police bulletin, 25 policemen were injured as a result of the brickbattling by students. This reporter also saw a few injured students, the injuries were said to have been sustained in police brickbattling. In the Kashmiri Gate Polytechnic, the students continued their strike and smashed the chemistry laboratory of the Delhi College of Engineering. A large posse of police was present around the camp educational institutions in Kashmiri Gate to ensure that there was no outbreak of violence. "

The trouble at the Polytechnics, strictly speaking, does not fall in the ambit of social science institutions but if there is any local contamination it has naturally adverse repercussions on all local educational institutions because the student community forms one block and one section cannot remain immune from the disturbances in another section

It would be worth while to cast a glance at southern Indian States during the three weeks period to which we have confined our report, to acquaint our readers with the general trend of the cycle of student unrest

Kerala Students Clash with Police

Trivandrum, September 6 The trouble in Mahatma Gandhi College here assumed a law and order dimension today when the police and the students clashed. The boys hit the police with stones only to receive cane blows. Five constables and one Assistant Commissioner of Police sustained minor injuries in the shower of stones. The police have arrested 49 students including the general secretary of the Right Communist led students federation, and registered four cases against them. Six students of the college have been on a hunger strike demanding 12 students, who had been suspended from the college, should be taken back.

Today, some students obstructed other students from entering the college. The police took the picketers into custody. When they were removed, the police party was attacked with stones. Thereupon, the boys were cane charged and dispersed.

Student Dies in Kerala Bandh Firing

Trivandrum, September 11 The Kerala Government's bandh against the Centre cost a life when a man fell dead as the police opened fire in the border town of Kasargode this morning. Sudhakaran, a student of the pre degree class in the local Government College, was the victim of the bandh. The police opened fire after a lathi charge proved ineffective to disperse the pro bandh and anti bandh sections of the population who were locked in a violent clash. Eight rounds were fired in all and two persons received bullet injuries, according to information reaching here.

A constable was injured in the shower of stones that were hurled at the police party. A prohibitory order has also been clamped on the town. Section 144 Cr PC has been promulgated at Kanjagode also in Cannanore district following a clash.

Unwise Agitation

Madras, September 23 The Chief Minister of Madras, Mr Annadurai and the Public Works Minister, Mr Karunanidhi have done well to call upon the students in Tamilnad to call off the anti Hindi agitation on which they had embarked apparently without consulting the leaders of the Dravida Munnetra Kazhagam. So far as keeping up the pressure on the Central Government is

concerned, for the purpose of preventing the imposition of Hindi on the non Hindi areas, there is no need today for any agitation by the students as such. The Madras ministry is quite capable of presenting the case of Tamilnad with both conviction and vigour.

Hyderabad Students Caned

Hyderabad September 25 Two students were injured when police lathi charged here today a student procession which was smashing window panes and street lights. Students of private colleges abstained from their classes today protesting at the 20 percent increase in tuition fee and went in a procession and succeeded in forcing out students from other colleges. Some shops on Abid Road, the main shopping centre, were also smashed. Two road transport buses were damaged. Some property of the new science college was also damaged. A sub inspector and two police constables received injuries in stone throwing and have been sent to hospital. The university campus, however, is quiet. The State Road Transport buses were withdrawn on certain routes or diverted as the students' procession was taken out, while panic stricken shopkeepers pulled down their shutters.

One Dies in Vizag Clash

Visakhapatnam, September 29 A student here this morning was accidentally gunned down in a clash between the police and a mob of infuriated students.

Hartal* in Balasore

Cuttack, September 25 Complete hartal is being observed in Balasore today. All schools, colleges and markets remain closed in protest against police action on Saturday. The dharna by students inside the collector's houses is continuing in batches.

Hyderabad Students Tear-Gassed

Hyderabad September 26 The police burst tear gas shells at two places here today to disperse student demonstrators protesting against the increase in tuition fees. Eight rounds of tear-gas shells were fired into the compound of the Vivek Vardhani College as a student mob was raining stones at the police and attempting to come out in a procession defying the prohibitory order. The police also tear-gassed a student mob in the Nizam College compound which allegedly pelted stones at the police and passers by. According to official reports, in all 10 constables and three inspectors besides three passers by were injured in the stone throwing. Two students were taken into custody.

Nagpur The students' agitation against fee rise spread to all the eight districts of Vidarbha in Maharashtra as the college students in Akola district joined the five day old strike by the university.

*Hartal—Closing down all shops and institutions as a mark of mourning or protest.

students today In Nagpur students of the government polytechnic and the Laxminarayan Institute of Technology also kept away from their classes for the first time today Only four local colleges have not been affected by the strike

Hyderabad Students Remain Peaceful

Hyderabad September 27 About five thousand striking students of the colleges here defied prohibitory orders and took out a procession today Armed police accompanied the slogan-shouting processionists who dispersed after parading the main thoroughfares of the city"

Kerala Students Gherao Minister

Trivandrum, 28 September The Finance Minister of Kerala Mr P K Kunju, was harassed by some students here today Accompanied by members of his family, the Minister was going to Quilon when some students of Trivandrum Engineering College blocked the way, gheraoed the car, jumped up on the vehicle and smashed it, broke up the headlights, removed the flag and removed a file The engineering students, boycotting their classes, came out to the streets today in support of striking engineers They stopped all passing vehicles and wrote on them with chips of stones and paint 'Do justice to the engineers' When they tried on a police vehicle one of them was taken into custody and removed to the police station Thereupon, other students stormed the police station and 11 of them were also arrested All the twelve were then produced in court and let off on bail

We are now giving some more excerpts to show that in the eastern parts of India as well as in distant north, in Jammu and Kashmir the trouble is equally rampant

7 Students Held in Jamshedpur

Jamshedpur, September 9 Seven students were taken into police custody till this morning in connection with a clash which took place yesterday here in the TISCO* run by R D Tata High School between two groups of students resulting in injuries to two students, according to Mr J N Singh, Deputy Superintendent of Police The total number of arrests in Jamshedpur following a vigorous anti social drive reached 280 till today, he added Orders under Section 144 which terminated yesterday have been extended to September 22, it was officially announced here This precautionary measure has been taken in view of the recent disturbance at Ranchi

Vet. Students on Strike

Hissar, September 10 About 300 students of Hissar Veterinary College went on an indefinite strike from yesterday to press upon

*TISCO—Tata Iron and Steel Company

the Government to revise the pay scales of veterinary assistant surgeons. Students took out a procession in the town and shouted slogans demanding that surgeons be allowed private practice or in the alternative they should be paid Rs. 150/- as a practising allowance and rupees one hundred as rural allowance.

Students Hold Up Train

Mansa, September 9. More than 1,000 students held up the UP 344 Down Delhi bound passenger train for about an hour here yesterday. The students also damaged the window panes and fans of the compartments. A large number of passengers were injured as a result of stones thrown by the students.

The trouble arose when a police constable allegedly misbehaved with some students during a special checking at the local railway station.

One Killed in Bankura Firing

Calcutta, September 13. One student was killed and two others were injured when the police opened fire on college students at Bishnupur in Bankura district today. According to a State Government spokesman the trouble started yesterday in the local playground, where the students of Ramananda College and K G Engineering College clashed during a football match.

Medicos Gherao Minister

Rohtak, September 17. The Health Minister of Haryana was today gheraoed by the striking students of the local medical college when he came out of the college hospital building after having negotiations with the principal and staff of the college. The students asked the Minister either to remove the principal or transfer him from the college. The Minister assured the students that he might concede their demand but they should call off their strike unconditionally.

Student Agitation Continues in Hoogly District

Calcutta, September 17. The students yesterday continued their agitation at Itachuna in Hoogly district with a vengeance. About 2,000 students of Itachuna college and from other neighbouring areas collected at Itachuna today and set fire to a jeep belonging to Mr. Indra Narayan Kundu, Secretary, governing body, Itachuna college. Mr. Kundu was arrested this morning in connection with yesterday's disturbances but was released on bail.

Yesterday, the students tried to drag him out of his house and were resisted by local villagers. Later when the students came back reinforced, they had a clash with the villagers in which some students were injured. Bows and arrows are reported to have been used by the villagers during the clash. As a protest, the students held up trains near Khaannan station for a long time.

and kept the SDO and the police force which went there gheraoed till 1 a.m.

Students Burn Newspapers

Gauhati, September 18 A group of students set on fire several packets of newspapers, published from Gauhati at Nowong, 75 miles from here on Saturday to demonstrate their anger against the papers, which they claimed did not support the indefinite strike by school teachers' and students' agitation in their support. Meanwhile, the teachers' strike, demanding, among other things, a salary scale similar to the one given in government schools, entered the seventh day today with no sign of a settlement.

Almost all the opposition political parties have come out in support of the teachers' strike. The All Assam Students Union has decided that the students of all schools and colleges in the State would go on an indefinite strike from September 20 if the Government did not come to a settlement with the teachers. The teachers' association has appealed to the students to desist from agitational methods in their support.

Bastar Students Continue Strike

Jagdalpur, September 21 Students of the Government College here continued their strike for the second day yesterday when school students also stayed out of their classes to join a big procession, which paraded the streets shouting slogans. The strike in the government college is stated to be in protest against the authorities' 'failure' to provide teaching staff for its commerce section.

Stabbing Cases in Ranchi Again

Ranchi, September 22 Panic again prevailed and the people began deserting streets following two stabbing incidents in a local school near the kotwali yesterday in which a student was stabbed. Other incident which took place at about 5 p.m. in one of the thickly populated localities was supposed to be in retaliation of the first incident.

Students Hurt in Indore

Indore, September 22 Several students of the Gujarati College here received bleeding injuries and the college building and laboratory equipment damaged in an attack by some 200 students of the Gandhi Memorial Medical College this morning. A sub-inspector of police was alleged to have been beaten up when he tried to restore peace. A senior police officer and some policemen were also hit by stones in the incidents which according to the police, were touched off by a bicycle accident involving students of the two colleges. Immediately after the incidents the Gujarati College was closed for the day. Strong police pickets were posted outside both the colleges.

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Orissa Students Tear Gassed

Cuttack, September 27 The police today used lathis and teargas to disperse a violent students mob at Bhadrak according to a report received here. The students who were trying to violate prohibitory orders became violent and started brickbattling. An Orissa State Transport bus was reported damaged and a Public Works Department truck set on fire.

Striking Nagpur Students Clash

Nagpur, September 27 The strike by the university students here which entered the sixth day today took an ugly turn when two groups of students clashed this morning near Ambedkar College.

A 500 strong group of striking students had gone to Ambedkar College this morning to plead with their counterparts in the college to join the strike. The students of Ambedkar College had kept off from the strike and had announced their decision accordingly.

Student Stabbed in Poll Clash

Meerut September 27 A student was admitted to hospital with stab wounds sustained in a clash between two groups of students of Meerut College while the college elections were in progress. Police and P A C are patrolling round the college as a precautionary measure. A case of stabbing has been registered against four students and investigations are in progress.

Curfew in Ratlam

Ratlam September 28 A 16 hour curfew has been clamped on Ratlam town at two this afternoon following incidents of violence since this morning. The trouble sparked off with a scuffle last evening between two groups of students of a local higher secondary school. Tension mounted in the town in the fore noon and, according to official reports, four houses were set on fire and some shops were looted. A number of stabbing cases and stone-throwing incidents were also reported. The police have arrested 12 persons. Adequate police from Indore was despatched to the troubled area.

Kashmir Student Rally Dispersed

Srinagar, September 28 The students of a local polytechnic here today attempted to take out a procession in defiance of the prohibitory orders in force in the city to express their resentment over the fire incident at Baramulla in which a mosque was gutted on the night of September 26. The police dispersed the slogan shouting students. Another local college was closed for the day, while students of the engineering college on the outskirts of the city, sought to hold a peace march. They were stopped by the police.

4 Hurt as Police Fire on Squatters

Katihar, September 28 Four men were injured when army Jawans and members of the Saurashtra Reserve Police Force opened fire

and chased away squatters, who indulged in heavy brickbatting at Sonaili railway station, about 11 miles away from Katihar on the Katihar-Siliguri section of the North East Frontier Railway, last evening. A large number of students and local people had detained the 15 Up Siliguri Lucknow Express train at Sonaili by squatting on the track for three hours. The squatters were pressing their demand for extending the journey of Radbikapur-Barsoi passenger train upto Katihar."

We have confined press reports to those published during the three weeks or so in September, 1967. We are however giving a report published in *Statesman* dated 18.11.1967 that murders are committed even on account of trivial issues such as selection for proctorial work.

College Monitor Murdered

Aligarh, November 17. A senior proctorial monitor was murdered in the Principal's room of a local college here yesterday, reports PTI. The monitor was allegedly chased and stabbed to death by a group of students and some goondas when he entered the Principal's room for safety. Earlier on Wednesday night two groups of students had clashed near a temple on the selection of the deceased for proctorial work. No arrest has been made so far.

It is reiterated that the report is only illustrative and not exhaustive. We have been a little too critical at places and have not glossed over facts. Lest our version of the student unrest be viewed as coloured, we have reinforced the picture with actual press reports, without editing them or embroidering upon them. These incidents show that almost all parts of the country are having student trouble. The local causes may differ but the deep current of student dissatisfaction and indiscipline runs throughout the length and the breadth of the country. Sometimes there is agitation and unrest over the knotty problem of medium of instruction, at others it is over some issue connected with an examination, at others, it is over the behaviour of some teacher. Any minor issue is sufficient to spark off the trouble and sometimes such petty matters as non availability of a cinema ticket or a scuffle with a junior limb of law and order has generated enough heat to fire the frenzy of the entire student community and once the students at a particular place start the ball it goes on rolling. It has all the vicious features of trade unionism, which in sympathy with sister institutions keeps the ball rolling from place to place and as it rolls on, it gathers momentum and leads to more and more trouble.

It may well be argued that if out of nineteen or twenty lakh students, a few thousand agitate and strike and become restive and unruly, a small percentage of trouble spots does not markedly alter the general conditions of teaching all over the country. But the argument would have some force if the trouble were confined to any one area. Sometimes it is agitation say in

Rajasthan, at others it is firing in Bihar and yet at others it is Bengal and just as a few painful boils scattered over the person cover only a small surface in relation to the total skin of the human body, they nevertheless are too painful to allow normal working, so do incidents of student violence—at a few places here and a few places there, sometimes in the east, at others in the west, in north, or in south, pollute the entire educational atmosphere of the country, and pull down the prestige of the teachers as well as of the institutions. Not only is teaching impaired, the general standards go down and though the wounds may heal, the scars continue to remain. Apart from other factors, the lowering of the quality of teaching, has been largely due to the student indiscipline all over the country.

In order to acquaint our readers with the various factors which have devalued university education in India we would like to give a specific example. Financial difficulties, student unrest and other factors have adversely affected teaching in the North Bengal University and it would be relevant to refer to the following press report—dated 17th November 1967

N Bengal University in Trouble

The North Bengal University is yet to get over its teething troubles that continue to afflict it even in the sixth year of its existence.

The university, still in its nascent stage, faces overwhelming odds: an acute financial crisis and simmering student unrest. And both these problems are sapping the potentiality of the university.

Signs of decay are everywhere: examinations are being held without examinees as the students are at war with the Vice-Chancellor, Professor A. C. Roy. The teachers have taken a neutral attitude, possibly feeling that they should not interfere in the Vice-Chancellor's clash with the students. The employees are disgruntled. The progress of construction work is barely perceptible as the contractors are not paid regularly. Circles close to the university point out, however, that these are only symptoms of the basic malady—shortage of funds.

These circles believe that many students support the CPI (M) extremists because they have few diversions. Facilities for games and sport are very limited. The university library is anything but worthy of its name. Few departments have adequate teaching staff. Furthermore, the departments, huddled together for lack of space cannot be expanded. Many teachers do not want to stay on, because there is no social life and the only link with the outside world is an irregular and overcrowded bus service to Siliguri.

The State Government which created the university in 1962, has no obligation to nurture it. What the university receives from the Government is a pittance compared to its growing

needs. The total annual aid is about Rs 14 lakhs. But as this is not a statutory grant, the university cannot demand this and has to depend on the Government's mercy. Moreover, practically the entire amount received is spent on the salaries of the teaching and administrative staff.

Student Unrest

The student unrest in its present form, however, is a recent development. It came in the wake of the CPI(M) extremist led peasant movement in Naxalbari which struck a sympathetic chord in some students. These boys are reported to have kept close contact with the extremists and to have sheltered the fugitive leaders during the mopping up operations. Some of these students also extended their base of operations to villages nearby, where they practised archery.

Then, some time in August, these students intercepted a police patrol near the university at night and forced it to release a number of people rounded up from a nearby village for "interrogation".

Flushed with this "victory", the students stepped up their activities within the campus using the hostels as centres. Whereupon, several students with opposing views complained to the authorities that the academic atmosphere had become too vitiated for students. Their opponents spotted the signatories of the petition and beat them up so severely that several boys fled from the hostel in panic. The climax came in September when disturbances broke out again, necessitating police intervention and the untimely closure of the university.

During the closure, the Vice-Chancellor suspended three students, Kishan Chatterjee, Dilip Bagchi and Pabitra Pani Saha, who had been arrested by the police in connection with the incidents. He also issued a circular, banning all meetings and processions within the campus.

After the university reopened, supporters of these students attempted to take out a procession demanding that the suspension orders be lifted. They were dispersed by the university's security personnel and they immediately made an issue of the incident and decided to boycott the ensuing examinations till their demand was conceded and the rest of the students were forced to follow them.

Ever since then, it has been a battle of endurance between the students and the Vice-Chancellor, who is determined to conduct the examinations according to the announced programme with or without examinees. The police who were called in by the Vice-Chancellor are still there. The Vice-Chancellor has agreed to allow the suspended students to sit for the examination, provided they present their case before him directly. The students have not responded so far.

During his stay in Darjeeling some time ago, Mr. Dharma Vira, the Governor, is reported to have told the Vice-Chancellor either to restore order by adopting any measure within his power or close down the university

We shall now give the views* of the Education Commission (1964-66) and close this chapter

"Student Discipline" In the last couple of decades, so much has been written about problems of student unrest its numerous ugly manifestations and the causes responsible for it that it is not necessary for us to repeat the details. Briefly, there have been many ugly strikes and demonstrations—often without any justification—leading to violence, walkout from classrooms and examination halls ticketless travel, clashes with the police, burning of buses and cinema houses and, sometimes, even manhandling of teachers and university officers. There is a variety of causes which has brought about these ugly expressions of uncivilized behaviour, e.g., the uncertain future facing educated young men leading to a sense of frustration which breeds irresponsibility, the mechanical and unsatisfactory nature of many curricular programmes; the totally inadequate facilities for teaching and learning in the large bulk of institutions, the poor student teacher contact—many a student goes through the entire undergraduate course without exchanging a word with his teachers, the inefficiency and lack of scholarship on the part of many teachers and their failure to interest themselves in the students' problems, the absence of imagination and tact combined with firmness on the part of heads of institutions, the prevalence of what has come to be known as teacher politics in some colleges and universities, the attempt by political parties to interfere in their work, and by no means the least, the impact of the conditions of public life in the country, the falling standards of discipline among the adults and a weakening of their civic consciousness and integrity

While such incidents and their contributory factors have been a feature of higher education for some years past, what is particularly disturbing at present is the noticeable trend towards a progressive deterioration and the fact that these acts are increasingly committed quite unapologetically and on irrelevant and frivolous grounds. This is specially regrettable in view of the considerable expansion of opportunities for youth that independence has initiated and of the critical challenges that the nation is facing in the fields of both defence and economic and cultural development. In such a situation sociological explanations are not enough. Indeed unless they indicate a feasible solution of the problem and lead to effective action, mere explanation is likely to be mistaken for justification. Urgent steps are, therefore, needed to curb these trends and to ensure that, whatever else education

*Pages 296 and 297 of the report

may or may not aim at doing, it should at least strive to enable young men and women to learn and practise civilized norms of behaviour and commit themselves honestly to social values of significance. It is also necessary to remember that the responsibility for the situation is not unilateral—it is not merely that of the students or parents or teachers or State Governments or the political parties—but multilateral. All of them share it, together with many factors in the objective situation and no effective solution is possible unless each agency responsible for the malaise does its own duty. Some of the remedies for students' unrest, therefore, go beyond the education system. But even if we leave them out, there are two major things that the education system itself can and must do

- remove the educational deficiencies that contribute to it, and
- set up an adequate consultative and administrative machinery to prevent the occurrence of such incidents

The first of these measures, the improvement of the educational process, is the heart of the problem. The discipline which higher education cultivates should aim at self-discipline—discipline directed from within, which does not depend primarily on external control. Moreover, such discipline can grow only if it is deeply related to the pursuit of deeper goals in life and rises out of interest and devotion to scholarship. In other words, the incentives to positive discipline have to come from the opportunities that the institution presents and the intellectual and social demands it makes on the students. From this point of view, we have emphasized throughout this Report, the need to improve standards in institutions at all stages of education, including colleges and universities. We have also stressed the need, side by side, for providing a better standard of student services. Unless this is done, a radical cure to the problem is not possible.

With regard to the second of these measures, we would like to emphasize that the whole of university life is to be treated as one and that all attempts at polarisation between teachers, students and administration should, therefore, be avoided. From this point of view we have made a number of important recommendations such as the appointment of joint committees of teachers and students, the establishment of a central committee under the chairmanship of the vice-chancellor or principal consisting of students and teachers, and where advisable, the association of students with the Academic Council and the Court. What we have to strive to generate is a spirit of comradeship between teachers and students based on mutual affection and esteem and on a common allegiance to the pursuit of truth, of excellence in many directions and of the good of the society as a whole. If this spirit could be created, many of the problems of discipline which bedevil our academic life at present will become easier to solve and, will, we hope, disappear in course of time.

CHAPTER XVII

SCHOLARSHIPS AND SOME GENERAL PROBLEMS

Excerpts from the Education Commission's Report in respect of scholarships and some other problems are given below. The number of paragraphs have also been given, for facility of reference.

6.24 *Scholarships at the University Stage* The programme of scholarships in higher education is extremely important. The bulk of the existing programme is in this sector and a very large part of it is provided by the Government of India. In our opinion a further development on the following lines is needed:

- increase in the number of scholarships and other forms of student aid and in the amount of scholarships,
- reduction of procedural and other delays,
- improving the methods of selecting awardees,
- institution of scholarships for study abroad and
- institution of a large programme of loan scholarships.

Our recommendations on these and other allied matters are given below.

6.25 *Number of scholarships* In our opinion the ultimate target towards which we should move in the provision of scholarships at the university stage would be the following:

- (i) Scholarships should be available to at least 15 per cent of the enrolment at the undergraduate stage by 1976 and to 25% of such enrolment by 1986, and
- (ii) scholarships should be available to at least 25% of the enrolment at the postgraduate stage by 1976 and to 50 per cent of such enrolment by 1986.

These targets should be treated as national averages and it should be an objective of policy to vary them from institution to institution or from faculty to faculty. For example, a much larger proportion of scholarships should be available in university departments and colleges. The proportion of scholarships available in affiliated colleges should generally be lower, but in good colleges, it may be higher than, and even equal to that in the universities. Similarly, the proportion of scholarships in courses in science could be greater than that in legal education. Even more liberal scholarships could be given to teachers under training.

6.27 *National Scholarships* The national scholarships form another important category of scholarships awarded at the university stage. The entire expenditure on these scholarships which were instituted in the third five year plan and are awarded on the basis of merit, is met by the Government of India. To

actual practice, the Government of India allocates a specified number of scholarships to each State Government and the award is made, under the rules framed by the Government of India, by the State Government concerned. This is a good scheme and should be continued and largely expanded. We make the following recommendations in this regard.

- (i) *Coverage* At present, the scheme covers less than one per cent of the students who appear at the various examinations to which the scholarships are allocated. The target to be reached should be to cover five per cent of such students by 1975-76 and ten per cent of such students by 1985-86.
- (ii) *Decentralization* In the practice now in force, the Ministry of Education allocates the scholarships to the different States on the basis of population. The allocation is further sub-divided according to the different examinations held in the State and care is taken to see that at least one award is allocated to each examination irrespective of the number of students appearing therein. The names of the students eligible for these awards are communicated by the Director of Education of the State, in due course, to the Ministry of Education which then issues 'entitlement' cards to the students concerned. On the production of these cards, the students do not find any difficulty about payment of fees, etc., until the amount of scholarships is paid to them. This is a much simpler procedure than that which was in vogue some time ago, but even now there are delays and complaints about payments and the procedure needs still further simplification.

One concrete suggestion in this regard is that the power to issue entitlement cards should be delegated to the authorities holding examinations to which the national scholarships have been assigned. As at present, the Ministry should allocate national scholarships to the different examinations in a State. The authorities holding these examinations should be instructed to announce the names of the winners of the national scholarships (subject to verification on the basis of the means test in due course) along with the examination result. They should also be supplied with the requisite number of entitlement cards duly signed by an officer of the Ministry of Education and these should become valid as soon as they are countersigned on behalf of the authority holding the examinations. It should also be made a rule that the entitlement card should be given to a student along with his examination result.

The institutions which the holders of national scholarships join should be under an obligation to pay them the amount of the scholarships direct, after verifying the means test. The payment should be made from month to month along with salaries of staff and the institutions should claim reimbursement from the State Government in due course. This should not be difficult if the

entitlement card has a perforated portion on the production of which the State Directors of Education are required to pay a year's scholarship in advance to the school authorities

At present the Government of India makes the payment of the scholarship amount to the institutions concerned through the State Governments or the State departments of Education. Since the vast majority of national scholarship holders will be studying either in the universities or in their affiliated colleges, we think that it would be a much simpler and a more convenient procedure for the Government of India to make the payments direct to the universities (which will pass on the necessary funds to their affiliated colleges). This possibility should be explored.

We believe that a procedure on the above lines would overcome several of the difficulties at present experienced by the students.

(iii) *A New Basis of Award* For the national scholarships to be given to university entrants, the most common practice adopted at present is to award them on the basis of marks obtained in the external public examination at the end of the secondary course and for this purpose the entire State is regarded as a unit. As was pointed out earlier, this method is unfair in the brighter students who happen to have attended weaker schools and whose preparation, therefore, leaves much to be desired. What is needed, therefore, is the adoption of a more egalitarian basis for the award of scholarships in such cases.

From this point of view, we suggest that it would be desirable to group schools in small 'clusters' on the basis of their enrolments and socio-economic backgrounds, and to select the 'top few' students in each cluster for the award of scholarships, the actual number of students to be selected depending upon the funds available. The 'top' students in the one group may not come up to the top students in other groups. But they represent good potential talent and would make good if special arrangements were made in the universities or colleges to which they are admitted, to give them some special attention and help them to make up for the shortcomings in their attainments.

The general policy should be to award fifty per cent of the scholarships on the basis of school clusters and the remaining fifty per cent, as at present, on the basis of the State as a Unit.

We strongly recommend this new method of awarding scholarships, especially at a time when the provision of higher education will be made only on a selective basis. This egalitarian approach will secure social justice and net a much greater amount of talent than is done at present. With the expansion of secondary education to rural areas, the establishment of a large number of new secondary schools every year, and the entry of young persons from the unprivileged sections of the society into

secondary and higher education students will now begin to arrive at the threshold of higher education with widely varying levels of preparation which reflect, not so much the variation in native capacity, as in their socio economic backgrounds and in the standards of the secondary schools which they attended. Unless due allowance is made for them, the stratification of Indian society will tend to increase rather than decrease.

6.28 *University Scholarships* At present the number of scholarships awarded by the universities is extremely small both at the undergraduate and at the post graduate stages. This is not a happy position. We recommend that a scheme of university scholarships should be developed in the fourth plan itself and the funds required for it should be placed at the disposal of the UGC which should make them available to the universities (and which, in their turn, should make them available to colleges). The award of the scholarships should be made in accordance with the rules framed by the universities with the approval of the UGC, and the authority to select students for the award in accordance with the rules should be delegated to the heads of the institutions. The target to be reached should be to cover about 10% of the enrolment at the undergraduate stage and 20% of such enrolment at the post graduate stage by 1976.

These scholarships should be in the Central sector and the grants-in aid on account of them should be borne by the Government of India, through the UGC, on a permanent basis.

6.39 *Some General Problems relating to Student Aid* We shall now briefly discuss a few other related issues. These relate to all stages of education.

- (i) *Transport* The provision of transport facilities can help to reduce the cost on hostels and scholarships. We have seen schools in rural areas which provide bicycles to the students who have to come from a distance. An arrangement of this type should be encouraged, as it makes the secondary school accessible to students in outlying villages. Wherever possible, the same arrangement could also be extended to other categories of institutions.
- (ii) *Day-Study Centres and Lodging Houses* For students who do not have adequate facilities for study at home, it is necessary to provide a large number of day study centres at the secondary and university stages. It would also be desirable to provide lodging houses, i.e., places where they can stay throughout the day, and even at night, but go home for food. Some institutions have tried to provide this facility by adopting an unorthodox approach, i.e., by using classrooms for residential and study purposes before and after school hours and at night. Experiments of this type should be encouraged.
- (iii) *Earn and Learn* Facilities for students to earn and pay a part of their expenses should be developed on as large a

scale as possible as a supplement to the programme of scholarships

- (iv) *Scholarships for Girls* In scholarships and other forms of student aid, preferential consideration should be given to the needs of girls

Some Problems to be Faced

11.13 The existing situation in higher education during the academic year broadly alternates between slackness and strain—slackness during the session, strain at the time of examinations. In many of the weaker colleges and universities, a majority of teachers teach mechanically and listlessly. The subjects in which they lecture do not often involve their intellectual passion. They do not usually have a part in the formulation of the syllabus which they are required to teach, nor do they make—with a few bright exceptions—experiments in methods of teaching. There is little enthusiasm for learning or discovery of new truths because research is not considered an integral part of their duties and whatever research is done is usually of unconvincing quality. In the absence of a 'research impregnated' atmosphere, even the intellectually ambitious younger members of the staff are soon caught up in the general atmosphere of indifference or cynicism. A large proportion of teachers suffer from financial worries—particularly in colleges, where grades are low—and are often unable to buy any books or journals. Even the physical conditions of work discourage serious, undistracted study of intellectual dialogue with their colleagues. Usually there is one staff common room which is not large enough even to accommodate all the members of the faculty. In some of the institutions there are additional factors which are uncongenial for the development of intellectual vitality. The hierarchical concentration of authority within the departments and colleges, the atmosphere of distrust between senior and junior teachers, the cynicism about administrative authorities, the unseemly conflicts about offices and positions and the aptitude of envy towards persons of superior attainments—all have contributed to the deadening of the spirit of intellectual curiosity and adventure. Some of the members are diverted from intellectual concerns into intrigue and conflict over the small administrative or financial prizes afforded by Indian academic life. On top of all this, the bureaucratic structure within which research has to be done, the dependence on the approval of indifferent superiors, the elaborate procedures through which equipment made abroad has to be obtained, the difficulties in the maintenance and repair of equipment once obtained and in establishing contact with researchers, working on related subjects, have all had a depressing effect on the morale of teachers and on the quality of their research output.

11.14 The situation with regard to the students is no better. Many now come from comparatively or entirely uneducated homes and are ill prepared at the secondary level to undertake

genuine university work, they have little experience of independent study, their curiosity is unquickened and learning for them is mainly a matter of mechanical memorization. There is, as a rule, little discussion of intellectual matters with their teachers or fellow students, their main duty is considered to be to attend uninteresting lectures usually given in a language which they understand inadequately. When the medium is an Indian language, there is a dearth of suitable textbooks and supplementary literature necessary to achieve competence in their subjects. Many of them cannot be expected to read textbooks in English because it has not become for them the language of the library. The capacities of the better students are not fully stretched by curricular offerings or the stimulus which inspiring teachers could provide. In addition, a large majority of students are beset with financial worries which make concentration on academic work difficult.

11.15 This may appear an exaggerated picture. But it is not. If anything, it errs on the side of under estimation. It is of course, true that there are bright exceptions to this dark picture which one must gratefully acknowledge. But taken all in all, the ideal of academic excellence is confined to a minority of teachers and students who have to keep it alive against the downward pressure of discouraging circumstances.

11.21 One important advantage of these¹ universities is that we would be able to provide within the country itself, first-rate postgraduate education comparable to that in educationally advanced nations. The scholars and scientists trained in these universities will feel much more akin to their own centres of creativity. The importance assigned to foreign degrees whether they are of high or average or poor quality, will be considerably diminished and those who have not 'returned' from abroad would not feel at a disadvantage. We realize that it will still be necessary for Indian scientists and scholars to go abroad for purposes of further training, research or for consultation with their foreign colleagues. We have made certain proposals in the scheme of scholarships for this purpose. But instead of going abroad to receive first-rate postgraduate education², study abroad will primarily aim at bringing first class Indian scholars to work with distinguished scholars of international reputation.

11.22 This concept of providing first-rate postgraduate education to talented young persons within the country received strong support from Prof F Scitz, President of the U.S. Academy of

1 The reference is to the establishment of major universities.

2. According to the latest information Indian 15 593 students and trainees were studying in foreign countries on 1-1 1964. Of these 1,353 students were studying arts, 1,032 were studying science, 4,191 engineering and technology and 1,492 medicine and veterinary science. The number in the U.S.A. was 7,153, in West Germany 4,600, in the U.K. 2,793, in Canada 418, in France 123 and in the USSR 76.

Sciences, and Prof. P M S Blackett (President of the Royal Society) It would be worthwhile to quote from the convocation address to the University of Leeds (England) delivered by Prof. Blackett in 1964 His remarks may or may not apply to some developing countries, they are certainly relevant to Indian conditions

'There are three reasons why it seems to be exceedingly important that all developing countries should attempt as soon as possible to create facilities in the major subjects for first class higher degree work, so that normally a student takes his higher degree in his own country First, the present widespread practice of sending most bright students overseas to take a higher degree makes it difficult to build up native research schools in the universities because an adequate supply of research students is the life blood of a creative university postgraduate department. Following this it will be difficult to keep good staff unless they have an adequate number of postgraduate students Second, the loss of trained people to the developing countries, by overseas students not returning to their homeland after taking their higher degrees abroad, will be reduced Third, it will save much foreign exchange A three year Ph D course will cost some £3,000 taking fees, maintenance and fares into consideration and this is a direct drain on foreign exchange whether the money is provided by the States or privately'

11.23 In addition, these universities would help Indian academic life to come into its own At present, the 'centre of gravity' of Indian academic life is largely outside India That is to say, our scholars and scientists working in fields which are internationally cultivated still tend to look outside India for judgment of their work, for intellectual models of the problems which they study, for the books they read and for their forum of appreciation and approval This is damaging to our academic life in a number of ways First, Indian problems are not seen in their concreteness and particularity and as a result, techniques and theories are not adapted to the Indian situation Secondly, Indian academics suffer from a certain lack of self esteem and lose the confidence and courage necessary to try out new ways of attacking intellectual problems When these major universities, comparable to the best in any part of the world, have come into existence, we venture to hope that our scientists and scholars instead of having to look to Oxford Cambridge or Harvard or Moscow or Paris for inspiration, would be able to look to centres within our own country for similar stimulation and guidance This would be a change of the greatest significance Once the stimulus has become 'Indianised' it could act much more continuously and be less dependent on costly and infrequent personal contacts Also by becoming naturalized in the Indian environment, it will be directed more confidently towards problems to which our scientists and scholars could give themselves without feeling dislocated from their milieu

SECTION II : POLITICAL SCIENCES

CHAPTER XVIII

LEGAL EDUCATION

Since the report in the first part of the book, there have been rather important changes in the field of legal education. Legal education has three objectives (i) to be an academic discipline for expanding the horizon of the mind, to train the faculties of discrimination and judgment and be a source of intellectual pleasure, (ii) to enable the large body of persons, who run the various rural and industrial organisations to determine the correct legal position of the rights and wrongs in respect of labour, commercial, income tax and other laws and also for enabling the members of legislatures and Parliament and the staff occupying senior or junior positions in government offices, where with the background of legal education they can tackle the various problems in a more efficient manner and thus discharge their duties with better judgment and more in consonance with law, (iii) to enable the recipients of the degree in law, to practise in the law courts and earn a living thereby.

Of all the three objectives, the third one provides the motive to study law in larger measure than either the first or the second objective. Very few take up the study of law purely as an academic discipline or as a source of intellectual pleasure. The study of law and obtaining a degree is generally considered a stepping stone to qualify the student for enrolment as a legal practitioner, though circumstances may prevent his entering the Bar, which generally requires a number of years of patience and perseverance before regular income begins to accrue. And a large percentage not having the necessary financial support to carry them through the initial lean years, enter into service.

The following excerpt from (University, Education and Employment. A case study of Delhi Graduates by Prof V K V Rao (published in 1961 by Asia Publishing House) would in this connection be found enlightening.

"Education in Law"

"There is one more policy conclusion that stands out from this study, and that is with regard to education in law. It has been found that though law is considered at present to be a professional subject and presumably intended to enable the law graduates to practise as lawyers, a large proportion of law graduates, including those who take the proficiency courses in law, work as clerks, the figures being 40.9 per cent and 54.5 per cent for law graduates respectively for the 1950 and 1954 batches and 47.8 per cent and 56.3 per cent respectively for those who have

proficiency in law. It is true that some of them end up as legal workers, or practising lawyers after an initial period as clerks, but a substantial number, roughly 40 per cent, seem tied up with the clerical occupation. At the same time, an analysis of the alumni who have got administrative jobs shows that law is a useful equipment for both entry and success in these superior jobs. I drew two conclusions from these figures. One is the need for exercising stricter criteria in admission to the law course including not only vocational aims, but also higher standards of performance at the graduate level, the other is the desirability of introducing law as one of the subjects for general education in the graduate courses. Legal education, has a dual aspect; one is undoubtedly professional; the other, however, is educational and carries with it not only a good academic discipline but also a useful tool for success in administrative, commercial and managerial occupations. And it is time that our universities paid some attention to this second aspect of legal education when formulating their syllabuses and courses of study."

But now that the Bar Council of India is the supreme authority to lay down standards for legal education, they have kept in view the desirability of the new entrants equipping themselves with adequate legal knowledge and training, before they enter the profession of legal practitioners in the courts of law, and the two year course for obtaining the LL.B. degree has been extended to three years and certain standards laid for fixing ceiling on the number of students constituting a class and essential tutorial work which must be done by the pupils.

At most places, the attending of the law classes had become a pastime of those who found their evenings free and appearing at the LL.B. examination had in many cases acquired the complexion of the sporting spirit, for a number of students attended the classes by proxy. Though only about 150 students out of say 200 used to be present at the time of the roll call, (which used to be by roll numbers and not by names) about 190 to 195 used to be marked present, a number of students were marked present by proxy, and when the actual lectures commenced, about 80 to 90 students used to slip out in groups of two or three to join their set, who used to play tennis or other games (and were waiting for their partners who had gone into the law classes merely for getting themselves marked present) or for going to cinemas and only 60 to 70 students used to be left in the class, by the time the lectures ended.

Many students could thus obtain the LL.B. degree by the time they passed their M.A.s. That was changed and the universities abolished the system of appearing at two university examinations (M.A. and LL.B.) in the same year, but the evil of presence by proxy continued.

But the Advocates Act, 1961, has materially changed the structure and the complexion of the education in law and we are

giving below some of the important changes introduced. As no two words in a statute convey identical meaning, we do not want to change the language of the statute and are giving below, as far as possible, the new provisions as they have been laid down in the Act.

When the Advocates Act, 1961, was introduced, the following were stated to be objects and reasons:

The Bill seeks to implement the recommendations of the All India Bar Committee made in 1953, after taking into account the recommendations of the Law Commission on the subject of Reform of Judicial Administration, in so far as the recommendations relate to the Bar and to legal education.

2. The main features of the Bill are:

- (1) The establishment of an All India Bar Council and a common roll of advocates, an advocate on the common roll having a right to practice in any part of the country and in any court including the Supreme Court.
- (2) The integration of the bar into a single class of legal practitioners known as advocates.
- (3) The prescription of uniform qualification for the admission of persons to be advocates.
- (4) The division of advocates into senior advocates and other advocates based on merit.
- (5) The creation of autonomous Bar Councils, one for the whole of India and one for each State.

3. Following the recommendations of the All India Bar Committee and the Law Commission the Bill recognises the continued existence of the system known as dual system now prevailing in the High Courts of Calcutta and Bombay, by making suitable provisions in that behalf. It would however be open to the two High Courts, if they so desire, to discontinue the system at any time.

4. The Bill being a comprehensive measure repeals the Indian Bar Councils Act, 1926 and all other laws on the subject.

5. The notes on clauses explain, wherever necessary, the provisions of the Bill.

We are now giving below some provisions in the Advocates Act, 1961, which affect directly, indirectly or by implication, the legal education.

Section 2. Definition

- (a) "advocate" means an advocate entered in any roll under the provision of the Act.
- (b) "Bar Council" means a Bar Council constituted under this Act.

proficiency in law. It is true that some of them end up as legal workers, or practising lawyers after an initial period as clerks, but a substantial number, roughly 40 per cent, seem tied up with the clerical occupation. At the same time, an analysis of the alumni who have got administrative jobs shows that law is a useful equipment for both entry and success in these superior jobs. I drew two conclusions from these figures. One is the need for exercising stricter criteria in admission to the law course including not only vocational aims, but also higher standards of performance at the graduate level, the other is the desirability of introducing law as one of the subjects for general education in the graduate courses. Legal education, has a dual aspect, one is undoubtedly professional, the other, however, is educational and carries with it not only a good academic discipline but also a useful tool for success in administrative, commercial and managerial occupations. And it is time that our universities paid some attention to this second aspect of legal education when formulating their syllabuses and courses of study."

But now that the Bar Council of India is the supreme authority to lay down standards for legal education, they have kept in view the desirability of the new entrants equipping themselves with adequate legal knowledge and training, before they enter the profession of legal practitioners in the courts of law, and the two year course for obtaining the LL B degree has been extended to three years and certain standards laid for fixing ceiling on the number of students constituting a class and essential tutorial work which must be done by the pupils.

At most places, the attending of the law classes had become a pastime of those who found their evenings free and appearing at the LL B examination had in many cases acquired the complexion of the sporting spirit, for a number of students attended the classes by proxy. Though only about 150 students out of say 200 used to be present at the time of the roll call (which used to be by roll numbers and not by names) about 190 to 195 used to be marked present, a number of students were marked present by proxy, and when the actual lectures commenced, about 80 to 90 students used to slip out in groups of two or three to join their set, who used to play tennis or other games (and were waiting for their partners who had gone into the law classes merely for getting themselves marked present) or for going to cinemas and only 60 to 70 students used to be left in the class by the time the lectures ended.

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Section 2. Definition

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- (b) "Bar Council" means a Bar Council constituted under this Act.

- (e) 'Bar Council of India' means the Bar Council constituted under section 4 for the territories to which this Act extends
- (h) 'law graduate' means a person who has obtained a bachelor's degree in law from any university established by law in India
- (i) 'legal practitioner' means an advocate, vakil or attorney of any High Court, a pleader, Mukhtar or revenue agent
- (n) 'State roll' means a roll of advocates prepared and maintained by a State Bar Council under section 17

Section 7 Functions of the Bar Council of India

The functions of the Bar Council of India shall be

- (h) to promote the legal education and to lay down standards of such education in consultation with the universities in India imparting such education and the State Bar Councils
- (i) to recognise universities whose degrees in law shall be qualification for enrolment as an advocate and for that purpose to visit and inspect the universities

Objects and Reasons

The Law Commission deplored the deterioration of standards of legal education and suggested that the All India Bar Council should be given certain powers for improving such standards. The All India Bar Council has accordingly been empowered to recognise the universities whose degrees in law will be a qualification for enrolment as an advocate.

Section 10 Constitution of Committees Other than Disciplinary Committee

- (2) The Bar Council of India shall constitute the following standing committee, namely
 - (b) a legal education sub committee consisting of ten members, of whom five shall be persons elected by the Council from amongst its members and five shall be persons co-opted by the Council who are not members thereof

Section 24 Persons who may be Admitted as Advocates on a State-Roll

- (1) Subject to the provisions of this Act, and the rules made thereunder a person shall be qualified to be admitted as an advocate on a State Roll if he fulfils the following conditions
 - (c) He has obtained a degree in law —
 - (i) before the (28th day of February 1962) from any university in the territory of India or
 - (ii) before the 15th of August, 1947 from any university in any area which was comprised before that date within India, as defined by the Government of India Act, 1935, or

- (iii) after the (28th Day of February, 1962) from any university in the territory of India or elsewhere, if the degree is recognised for the purpose of the Act by the Bar Council of India, or he is a barrister
- (d) he has undergone a course of training in law and passed an examination after such training both of which shall be prescribed by the State Bar Council

Provided that this clause shall not apply to

- (i) a barrister who has received practical training in England or a person who has obtained a degree in law from any university in India before the 20th day of February, 1962
- (ii) .

Objects and Reasons

'The Committee feel that citizens of India who obtain legal qualification in this country or abroad should be entitled to be enrolled as advocates

In the opinion of the Committee, a degree in law is a sufficient qualification for enrolment as an advocate and that it is not necessary to provide for the additional qualification of a degree in arts, science or commerce

The Committee, however, consider that a course of practical training followed by an examination in regard to such training should be made compulsory "

Section 49 General Power of the Bar Council of India to make Rules
The Bar Council of India may make rules for discharging its functions under this Act and in particular, such rules may prescribe

- (d) the standards of legal education to be observed by universities in India and the inspection of universities for that purpose ,
- (e) the foreign qualifications in law obtained by persons other than citizens of India, which shall be recognised for the purpose of admission as an advocate under this Act *

The purpose of referring to the relevant provisions of the Advocates Act, 1961, is to inform the readers that the initiative and guidance to chalk out broad outlines of legal education has passed away from the hands of the academic councils or the members constituting the Board of studies to the hands of the Bar Council of India and the various directives (to which we shall hereafter refer) issued by the Bar Council of India, would be better appreciated and their significance better realised, in the light of this change

*The provisions of the Advocates Act 1961 and the objects and reasons referred to in the preceding pages have been adapted from the A I R Manual (2nd ed.), volume XVI, published by the All India Reporter Ltd Bombay

Steps Taken by the Bar Council of India

A In a meeting held on 26th February, 1963, the Bar Council of India passed the following resolutions (Resolution No 201/1963 dated 26 2 1963)

1 'Resolved that a degree in law obtained on or before the 30th June, 1964 from any university established by law in the territory of India be recognised for the purpose of section 24(i) (c) (iii) of the Advocates Act, 1961"

2 Resolved that no degree in law obtained after the 30th June, 1964 from any university in the territory of India shall be recognised unless such degree has been obtained after undergoing a course of study in law for a minimum period of two years after graduation. Provided, however, that nothing herein contained shall affect a person who has commenced a course of study in law before graduation prior to the 28th February, 1963 and obtained a degree in law before the 1st October, 1966

3 Resolved that for the purpose of section 24 (i) (c) (i) of the Act, a degree in law obtained from any university in Pakistan shall be recognised only if such degree has been obtained after a study in law for a minimum period of two years after graduation

Copies of these resolutions were forwarded for information to all the State Bar Councils and all the universities in India and all the Law Colleges affiliated to such universities and wide publicity was given to these

B In a meeting held on 11th April, 1965 the Bar Council of India passed the following resolution (No 50/1965)

"The Bar Council of India is of the opinion that the degree in law recognised in paragraph 3 of the resolution No 201/1963 should have been obtained after a course of study in law by regular attendance and after attending the necessary lectures of a college recognised by a university

The secretary was asked to write to the Secretary of the Bar Council of Punjab that the Bar Council of India does not propose to recognise a degree in law obtained without attending a regular course of study in a college recognised by a university

C The Bar Council of India consulted the universities imparting legal education and the State Bar Councils and in their meeting on 27th February, 1966 passed the following resolution No (2/1966)

"Having consulted the Universities imparting legal education and the State Bar Councils in India and having considered the recommendations of the Legal Education Committee embodied in its proceedings, dated 11th December, 1965 and resolution No 2 of 1966 dated 25th February, 1966, it is resolved that the following rules be and are hereby added as part III-A of the rules of the Council published in the Gazette of India, Part III—Section

4 in the issue dated 21st August, 1965 at pages 2555 2570 and as amended and published in the issues thereafter dated 30th October, 1965 at pages 2745 2746 and 29th January 1966 at pages 87 88'

Part III—A

Standards of Education and Recognition of Degrees in Law for Admission as Advocate

Rules under Sections 7 (h) and (i) 24 (i) (c) (iii) and 49 (d) of the Act*

1 No person shall be eligible for enrolment under the Advocates Act, 1961, unless at the time of joining the course of instructions in law for a degree in law, he is a graduate of a university

2 The duration of the course of instruction in law adequate for the purpose of Rule 1 shall be

(a) three years in the case of pupils who are registered as full time pupils, i.e. those whose course of instruction in the university is for a period of not less than 4 hours a day or 22 hours a week and

(b) four years in the case of pupils who are registered as part time pupils, i.e. whose course of daily instruction in the university is for a period of less than 4 hours a day or 22 hours a week

3 The strength of a law class shall not ordinarily exceed 80 pupils

4 The course of instruction in the university shall include the following subjects as compulsory

(1) Indian Legal and Constitutional History

(2) Contracts

(3) Torts

(4) Family Law including Hindu and Muhammadan Law

(5) Crimes and Procedure

(6) Constitutional Law of India

(7) Property Law

(8) Evidence

(9) Legal Theory (Jurisprudence) and Comparative Law

(10) Administrative Law

(11) Civil Procedure and Limitation, Arbitration

(12) Equity

(13) Public International Law.

(14) Company Law

(b) The course of instruction in the universities shall also include as being compulsory two more subjects to be chosen by the pupil himself from the following subjects

*The Advocates Act 1961 (Act XXV of 1961)

- (1) Labour Law
 - (2) International Organisation
 - (3) Bankruptcy
 - (4) Taxation
 - (5) Law of Co operation and Public Control of Business
 - (6) Military Law
 - (7) Insurance.
 - (8) Trusts and other Fiduciary obligations
 - (9) Trade Marks and Patents
 - (10) International Economic Law
 - (11) Criminology and Criminal Administration
 - (12) Interpretation of Statutes and Principles of Legislation
 - (13) Legal Remedies and
 - (14) Private International law
- (c) The University may however add to its course of instructions, not more than one other subject (of its choice) as a compulsory subject
- 5 During the last year of the Course mentioned in Rule 2, instruction shall be imparted for a period of six months in drafting of pleadings and documents, rules of courts and other subjects essential to actual practice of law
- 6 The examination shall ordinarily be held at the end of every year. The universities shall however be at liberty to hold examinations at the end of every 6 months. Suitable allocation of subjects for the period of one year or six months as the case may be shall be made
- 7 A system of exemption may be introduced and pupils who obtain 50% or more in any subject may be exempted from sitting for an examination in the same subject again
- 8 Tutorials shall be made compulsory, and a part of the total marks for each subject shall be allocated for satisfactory attendance at and participation in the tutorials
- 9 The academic year shall consist of at least 200 working days
- 10 Every university shall decide for itself whether the method of teaching shall be by lecture method or the case method, or a combination of both
- 11 Full time teachers of law shall ordinarily be holders of a Master's Degree in Law and part time teachers shall have a minimum practice of 5 years at the Bar
- 12 Universities shall endeavour to establish or recognise only those colleges which have whole time day classes in law and preferably full time law schools which exclusively teach law

13 The new three year or four-year degree course, as the case may be, mentioned in Rule 2 above, shall be instituted not later than the beginning of the academic year, 1967

C In a meeting held on 27th February, 1965 the Bar Council of India passed the following resolution (16/1966)

Resolved that resolution No 50/1965 passed on the 10th April, 1965 will not apply to persons who have begun their course of study in law or taken a degree in law prior to that date, viz, 10th April, 1965

D The Bar Council of India has also passed the following resolutions

1 Resolved that this Council is not in favour of any exemption being granted from training and examination prescribed under section 24 (1) (d)

2 Resolved that all the State Bar Councils be directed to take steps with immediate effect—

(i) to abolish the viva voce examination, where prescribed by the State Bar Councils by their rules under section 24 (1) (d)

(ii) to modify their rules so as to provide for a course of training in law for a period only of six months under section 24 (1) (d)

(iii) to hold examinations for purposes of section 24 (1) (d) twice a year so that not more than six months will elapse after the date of the declaration of the results of the examination, held by the universities

Note The State Bar Councils are requested to draw pointed attention of pupils to the rule which deals with exemption from paper or papers if a candidate is shown to have passed an examination either for the purpose of obtaining a degree in law or for being called to the Bar in the subjects comprised in the said papers.

3 Resolved that the duration of the course of instructions in law adequate for the purpose of Rule 1 in part III A of the Rules of the Council relating to standards of legal education shall be three years and not for four years in the case of pupils who are registered as part-time pupils with not less than 15 hours and not more than 22 hours a week and the Legal Education Committee is requested to consider whether any difference in the matter of total hours a day, or total hours in a week should be made between part-time and full time pupils and what, if any, consequential changes are necessary in the connected rules including the definitions of full time and part time pupils

The above gives a fairly good idea of shape of things to come in regard to legal education leading to the LL B degree. Legal education so far as study of certain categories of enactments are concerned forms part of commerce, labour welfare etc also and readers are referred to chapters dealing with industrial sociology, commerce etc. The Constitution of India and the study of international law also form integral part of study of

political science, international relations, diplomacy and international affairs to which readers may turn for teaching of law as parts of disciplines other than those for an exclusive degree in law. The details of courses of study in law prescribed by the Delhi University are given below

(1) Bachelor of Laws (LL B) Degree Examination

1 Every candidate for admission to the Course leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Laws, should have passed the examination for a Bachelor's Degree in any discipline of the University of Delhi, or for a Degree of any other University recognised as equivalent thereto *

2 Admission to the Course may be made on the basis of an admission test conducted by the Faculty of Law and/or on such other basis and subject to such other conditions as may be laid down by the Law Courses' Admission Committee

3 The Course for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws shall extend over a period of three academic years (i.e., six terms in all). Only candidates in regular whole time paid employment shall be eligible to be admitted to the evening shift classes

4 The following shall be the subjects and courses of study for the examinations

Three Year (six term) LL B Course

First Term (16th July to 17th December)

Compulsory Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects)

- 1 Elements of Indian Legal System (Growth of Constitutional Government and Rule of Law with special reference to India)
- 2 Principles of Contract (General Principles and Law of Agency)
- 3 Law of Torts (Nature, General Principles General Defences and Specific Torts)
- 4 Criminal Law I (Specific Crimes)
- 5 Family Law I (Hindu Law of Marriage, Adoption and Maintenance, Minority and Guardianship and Hindu Succession Act. Muslim Law of Marriage, Divorce and Dower, Acknowledgment of Paternity and General Principles of Inheritance (excluding Tables of Heirs)

Second Term (8th December to 30th April)

Compulsory Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects)

- 6 Constitutional Law I (Distribution of Legislative Powers between the Union and the States, Fundamental Rights, Direc-

* No person shall be eligible for admission unless he has secured at least 42.5% marks in the first Degree Examination or in any other Examination leading to a Master's Degree

tive Principles of State Policy, Powers and Jurisdiction of the Judiciary).

7 Family Law II (Hindu Law of Joint Family, Partition and Debts, Endowments Gifts, and Wills, and Muslim Law of Gifts, Wills and Wakfs)

8 Criminal Law II (General Principles and Procedure).

Optional Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects) A candidate has to opt for any two of the papers

9 and 10 Group A

A¹ Business Associations I (Partnership, Incorporation and Management of Companies)

A² Labour Law I (Industrial Jurisprudence, History and Development of Trade Unions and Labour Legislation)

A³ Taxation I (a) Constitutional Principles—Tax Powers and Constitutional Limitations—Union-States Financial relations (b) Income Tax.

Third Term (16th July to 7th December)

Compulsory Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects)

11. Constitutional Law II (Those portions of the Constitution of India not included under Constitutional Law I)

12 Public International Law (Law of Peace, War and Neutrality, International Institutions)

13 Civil Procedure, Limitation and Arbitration

Optional Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects) A candidate has to opt for any two of the papers)

14 and 15 Group B

B¹ Taxation II (a) Estate Duty (b) State tax with special reference to Delhi, (c) Duties, excise or custom as may be prescribed from time to time

B² Business Associations II (Company Finance, Stock Exchange Rules and Regulations, Company Securities, Foreign Companies Winding-up of Companies, Registered and Cooperative Societies)

B³ Labour Law II (Labour Management Relations Law).

B⁴ Private International Law

Note Taxation II Business Association II and Labour Law II shall be available to only those who have offered Taxation I, Business Associations I and Labour Law I in the second term, as the case may be

Fourth Term (8th December to 30th April)

Compulsory Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects)

16 Evidence (Law of Evidence in India)

17 Property Law (Transfer of Property, Easements and Licences including reference to equitable doctrines and principles wherever appropriate)

Optional Subjects

18, 19 and 20 Group C (Any three).

C¹ Constitutional Law of EnglandC² Principles of Interpretation of Statutes, Instruments, etcC³ Commercial Transactions (Sale of goods, bailment, indemnity and guarantee)C⁴ Negotiable Instruments, Banking and InsuranceC⁵ CriminologyC⁶ Administrative Law (Growth and development, delegated legislation, administrative adjudication, administrative discretion, judicial review of administrative action).C⁷ Land Laws (of a State in the Union of India with the previous permission of the Dean)

Fifth Term (16th July to 7th December)

Compulsory Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects)

21 Divisional Work

22 Essay

Optional Subjects (one paper in each of the following subjects A candidate has to opt for any three of these)

23, 24 and 25 Group D

D¹ Military Law (Martial Law, Law governing armed forces in India)D² Public Control of Business (Monopolies, concentration of economic powers, legal restrictions)D³ International Trade (Foreign Collaborations, Financial Arrangements with the trading organisations, Limitations on investment, capacity to sue)D⁴ Rent Control and Town PlanningD⁵ Law of InsolvencyD⁶ Trade Marks, Copyrights and PatentsD⁷ Law of International Institutions and Settlement of disputes (U N O and specialised agencies, International Court of Justice)D⁸ Legislative Drafting.

Provided, however, that the Dean may, in his discretion, require any or all students in the 5th term to choose, instead of divisional work and essay, two additional courses from Group D or any one or more of the other groups

Sixth Term (8th December to 30th April)

Compulsory Subjects

26 Jurisprudence (Legal theory and comparative law) One paper

27 and 28 Bar Courses

29. Moot Courts and Professional Ethics (No Examination shall be held in these courses, but attendance at these courses shall be a condition precedent to admission to the written examination in the other courses for the term. There will be grading of the performances of the student at the Moots, and certificates will be awarded to the student in regard to his performance at the Moots and his attendance at the Course in Professional Ethics)

Optional Subject

30 One from Group C not offered earlier

5 The medium of instruction and examination shall be English

6 Instruction shall also include Seminars, Tutorial work and Moot Courts

7 There shall be one examination at the end of each term, the academic year being divided into two terms as below

First Term From 16th July to 7th December,

Second Term From 8th December to 30th April

8 The examination shall consist of —

(a) One written examination at the end of each term in the courses prescribed. One paper as indicated herein before against each course shall be set in each of the courses prescribed for study, and the examination in a paper shall be of three hours' duration. Each paper shall carry a maximum of 100 marks

(b) In case of those students who are permitted by the Dean to opt for divisional work, one written examination for divisional work corresponding to one question paper carrying 100 marks and one research paper (essay) carrying 100 marks to be submitted at the end of the fifth term

9 (a) In order to qualify for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws, a candidate should obtain (i) at least 40% of the marks in each Paper prescribed for the examination, (ii) at least 40% of the marks in each of the courses prescribed for Divisional Work, and (iii) at least 40% of the marks in the Research Paper (Essay) comprising part of the Divisional Work

Provided, however, that a candidate, who has been required by the Dean to offer courses in lieu of the Divisional Work, must obtain at least 40% of the marks in each of those courses, in addition to his having to obtain at least 40% of the marks in each of the prescribed Papers which he is otherwise required to take

Clauses 10 to 13 are not applicable to the students admitted to the three-year LL B Course from the academic Year 1967-68 onwards

14 Notwithstanding anything contained in clauses 10, 11, 12 and 13, students admitted to the three year LL B Course from the academic year 1967 68 onward shall be governed by the following clauses —

15 Promotions from one term to the next term shall be regulated as follows —

(i) *From First-Term to the Second Term :*

No student shall be allowed to proceed to the Second Term, unless he has been declared to have passed the examination, held at the end of First Term, in at least, three courses.

(ii) *From Second Term to the Third Term*

No student shall be allowed to proceed to the Third Term, unless he has been declared to have passed the examination held at the end of the Second Term, in at least, three courses offered by him for the Second Term and in addition has passed in at least eight courses offered by him for the first and second terms examinations taken together.

(iii) *From the Fourth Term to the Fifth Term*

No student shall be allowed to proceed to the Fourth Term, unless he has passed the examination held at the end of the Third Term, in at least, three courses offered by him for the Third term.

(iv) *From the Fourth Term to the Fifth Term*

No student shall be allowed to proceed from the Fourth to the Fifth Term, unless he has passed the examination, held at the end of the Fourth Term, in at least, three courses offered by him for the Fourth Term and in addition has passed in at least eighteen courses offered by him for the first, second, third and fourth term examinations taken together

(v) *From the Fifth Term to the Sixth Term*

No student shall be allowed to proceed from the Fifth to the Sixth Term, unless he has passed the examination, held at the end of the Fifth Term, in at least, three courses offered by him for the fifth term including divisional work and essay, if any

(vi) *Eligibility for the Degree*

The student should have passed the examination in all the Papers prescribed for the six terms and, in addition, should have obtained the requisite minimum pass marks in the Divisional Courses as well as in the Research Paper (Essay) comprising part of the Divisional Work, or passed the examination in the courses offered in lieu thereof, as the case may be

16 A student who fails to obtain the requisite minimum pass marks in at least three courses prescribed for any term examination or fails to appear at the examination shall not be promoted to the next term unless he takes a fresh examination in all the five courses prescribed for that term subject to the provisions of the Ordinance relating to the enrolment of ex-students without their having pursued a fresh course of study

17. (a) Notwithstanding anything contained in the Ordinance VIII, an ex student shall be entitled to avail of only two chances. He can appear at the supplementary examination and/or the regular examination for that term immediately following the term examination in which he has failed to pass or to appear.

(b) An ex-student, who fails to avail of the above two chances or having appeared, fails to pass in the requisite number of courses for the term examination, may with the prior permission of the Dean, be admitted as a regular student in July or December Session, as the case may be

(c) An ex student, who has been declared to have passed in the minimum number of courses prescribed for promotion in a term examination, may seek admission to the next term in July or December Session, as the case may be

(d) No student shall be admitted as a candidate for the examination in any of the courses after the lapse of a period of five years after his first admission to the LL.B. Three Year-Course

(ii) Bachelor of Civil Law (B.C.L.) Examination

I With the introduction of the new three-year LL.B Course, the course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Civil Law will stand abolished with effect from the commencement of the academic year 1966 67

II The following transitory provisions have been made in respect of the students already undergoing the B.C.L. Course —

“(a) Notwithstanding the abolition of the Course for the B.C.L. Degree Examination, a candidate who has been already pursuing the Course for the B.C.L. Degree Examination may, subject to the provisions of the Ordinances and Regulations relating to the B.C.L. Degree Examination which were in force immediately before the commencement of the academic year 1966 67, be permitted to complete the Course and appear at the respective examinations for the B.C.L. Degree under the relevant provisions of the said Ordinance and subject to the provisions of the Ordinance relating to the enrolment of ex-students read with clause 5(i) of the B.C.L. Ordinance and subject to the provisions hereinafter contained.

Provided, however, that there shall be no Classes conducted in the Faculty of Law for the B C L Part II Course after the academic year 1966 67 or for the B C L Part III Course beyond the academic year 1967 68

(b) A candidate who, having completed the requirements, is otherwise eligible to appear at the B C L Part I Examination of 1966 may be permitted to join the B C L Part II Course and complete the requirements of attendance, etc., during the academic year 1966-67, irrespective of whether or not he has been declared to have passed the B C L Part I Examination

Provided however, that nothing in this Clause shall affect the requirements in regard to passing the B C L Part I Examination by such a candidate or enable him to appear at the B C L Part II Examination unless he has been declared to have passed the B C L Part I Examination

(c) A candidate who having completed the requirements is otherwise eligible to appear at the B C L Part II Examination of 1966 or 1967, may be permitted to join the B C L Part III Course and complete the requirements of attendance, etc., during the academic year 1966 67 or 1967 68, as the case may be, irrespective of whether or not he has been declared to have passed the B C L Part II Examination

Provided, however, that nothing in this clause shall affect the requirements in regard to passing the B C L Part II Examination by such a candidate or enable him to appear at the B C L Part III Examination, unless he has been declared to have passed the B C L Part II Examination

(iii) Master of Laws (LL M) Examination

1 No person shall be admitted to a course of study for the Degree of Master of Laws in the University, unless he is qualified for the Degree of Bachelor of Laws of the University of Delhi, or of a University whose Degree of Bachelor of Laws is recognised as equivalent to the Degree of Bachelor of Laws of the University of Delhi * or is qualified for the Degree of Bachelor of Civil Law of the University of Delhi

2 A candidate for the LL M Examination must have pursued an approved course of study in Delhi under the guidance of the staff of the Faculty of Law of the University of Delhi for not less than two academic years in case he is an LL B or for not less than one academic year in case he is a B C L of the Delhi University

Approved course of study under the guidance of the staff of the Faculty of Law shall mean attendance at lectures and Seminars, and submission of written papers as arranged by the Faculty of Law during the academic year

* No person will be admitted unless he has secured at least 50% of the marks in the aggregate of the LL B Prev and the Final Examinations taken together

A candidate shall be deemed to have pursued an approved course of study only if

- (i) he has attended at least two thirds of the lectures delivered to the LL M Part I Class¹ and
- (ii) he has attended at least Ten of the Seminars conducted for LL M Part II Class, five of which must have been attended before he appears in the written papers

Notwithstanding anything contained in the preceding Article, a teacher of the University in the Faculty of Law shall, on the recommendation of the Dean, be eligible to appear at the examination for Part I for the Degree of Master of Laws without having to put in the requisite percentage of attendance and on his passing the LL M Part I Examination, shall be eligible to appear at the LL M Part II Examination having to attend the requisite number of Seminars, provided he is otherwise eligible².

3 An LL B intending to proceed for the LL M Degree must pass in Part I as well as in Part II of the LL M Examination as hereinafter appearing, he must have passed in Part I Examination before he can appear in Part II Examination

A B C L intending to proceed for the LL M Degree will have to appear and pass in part II only of the LL M Examination.

4 The LL M Examination shall be conducted in two parts

Part I Examination will comprise the following papers (one paper in each of the following)

- 1 Jurisprudence (Analytical)
- 2 Jurisprudence (Historical)
- 3 English Legal and Constitutional History
- 4 Indian Legal and Constitutional History
- 5 Constitutional Law of England, including Commonwealth Relations
- 6 Constitutional Law of India

Part II Examination will consist of two papers in a subject chosen out of the following list, and a dissertation on a topic³ allied to the subject offered and approved by the Faculty of Law. The two papers will be as detailed under each subject —

(a) *Law of Torts*

- | | |
|------------------------------|-----------|
| 1 General Principles | One Paper |
| 2. Select Torts ³ | One Paper |

1 An LL M Part I student should in addition submit not less than seven essays of the requisite standard as prescribed by the Dean during the academic year in which he is admitted

2 For the relevant rules please refer to the Faculty

3 Special topics prescribed for the academic year 1967-68

(i) Liability of owners of animals and of dangerous chattels
(ii) Defamation

<i>(b) Law of Contracts</i>	
1 General Principles	One Paper
2 Select Topics ¹	One Paper
<i>(c) Mercantile Law</i>	
1 Company Law, Partnership and sale of Goods	One Paper
2 Negotiable Instruments, Banking, Carriage by Land, Sea and Air and Life Insurance	One Paper
<i>(d) Hindu Law</i>	
1. History, Sources, and General Principles	One Paper
2. Select Topics ²	One Paper
<i>(e) Mohanimadan Law</i>	
1 History, Sources and General Principles	One Paper
2. Select Topics ²	One Paper
<i>(f) Public International Law</i>	
1 Nature, History, Sources, International Persons, Objects of Law of Nations, International Transactions, Ambassadors and other Diplomatic Representatives and their Privileges, International Organisation	One Paper
2 Settlement of Differences, including Conciliation, Arbitration, etc., Retortion, Reprisals, Blockade, Intervention etc., Neutrality and War, Visitation, Capture, Search, etc	One Paper
<i>(g) Private International Law</i>	
1. History, Nature of Subject, General Principles, Jurisdiction, Obligations (Capacity, Contract and Torts)	One Paper
2 Domicile, Family Law (including Marriage, Divorce, Legitimacy), Property and Foreign Judgments and Procedure	One Paper
<i>(h) Jurisprudence</i>	
1 Philosophical and Sociological	One Paper
2 Theory of Legislation and Interpretation of Statutes	One Paper
<i>(i) Roman Law</i>	

Special topics prescribed for the academic year 1967-68

- 1 (i) Agency (ii) Bailment.
- 2 (i) Adoption (ii) Succession.
- 3 (i) The changes in the Law of Succession in Pakistan and Middle East Islamic Countries.
(ii) Law of Marriage in Pakistan and the Middle East Islamic Countries

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. History and General Principles | One Paper |
| 2. Select Topics | One Paper |
| (j) <i>Constitutional Law</i> | |
| 1. The Constitution of the United States of America | One Paper |
| 2. Select Constitutions ¹ | One Paper |
| (k) <i>Crimes and Penology</i> | |
| 1. Law of Crimes | One Paper |
| 2. Penology | One Paper |
| (kk) <i>Criminology and Penology</i> | |
| 1. Juvenile Delinquency with Special reference to India | One Paper |
| 2. Penology | One Paper |

Note : The Paper on "Penology" will be common to both Groups (k) and (kk).

(l) *Transfer of Property and Equity*

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. Transfer of Property (excluding Mortgages) | One Paper |
| 2. History of Equity, General Principles, Trusts, Specific Performance, Injunction, Mistakes, Misrepresentation and Fraud (Actual and Constructive) and Mortgages | One Paper |

(m) *Labour Laws*

- | | |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Industrial Jurisprudence, the roll of International Labour Organisation and Labour Management Relations Law | One Paper |
| 2. Comparative Labour Laws (A Comparative study of Labour Laws of India, and of such other countries as may be specified by the Dean from time to time) ² | One Paper |

Note :—(i) Candidates will have to obtain the Dean's sanction for the choice of subjects.³

(ii) The Select Topics for the various papers will be prescribed by the Faculty of Law from time to time.

5. (i) The LL.M. Part II Examination will take place at such time and on such dates as may be notified in that behalf.
- (ii) The candidate must ordinarily submit his dissertation on or before the 15th of April, and may, in special cases, be

1. The Constitutions of Canada and Australia have been prescribed for study for the academic year 1967-68.

2. Special topics prescribed for the academic year 1967-68, Industrial Dispute Settlement Law and Practices in U.K., Australia and United States with special reference to wages, strikes and discharges.

3. Change in the subject chosen shall not be allowed excepting with the previous sanction of the Dean, and in no case after the 25th July, 1967.

permitted by the Dean to submit the same not later than the 1st of August following the LL M Part II Examination in which he was declared eligible

In case the dissertation is not submitted as aforesaid, the candidate may be permitted to submit the same on or before the 15th of April or with the permission of the Dean, on or before the 1st of August of the following two years, provided he has been placed in the register of ex students in accordance with the provisions relating thereto

The topics of the dissertation which is not submitted within the period as aforesaid, may be assigned to another candidate who may wish to write upon the same

- (iii) The candidate will be eligible to submit his dissertation only when he has secured 50% marks in the written examination in the subject offered by him
 - (iv) A candidate who fails to pass in the dissertation may, by the Faculty of Law —
 - (a) be allowed to revise and resubmit the same, or
 - (b) be required to submit a fresh dissertation
 - (v) A candidate for the LL M Examination may be required to submit for a Viva Voce examination on the subject of his dissertation if the examiner of the dissertation so likes. Marks for the dissertation will be awarded after such Viva Voce examination, if any
- 6 (i) Each of the papers to be set for the LL M Part I or LL M Part II Examination, shall be of three hours' duration and carry the maximum of 100 marks
- (ii) The dissertation shall carry the maximum of 400 marks

Having given the details of courses of studies we shall give some tables to furnish information in regard to the numerical strength of colleges, students etc. The following figures would give an idea of the gradual increase in the number of law colleges and students studying law as an independent discipline,

TABLE I

Year	Number of Law Colleges	Number of Students	
		Men	Women
1940-51	19	13 143	291
1953-54	21	19 112	405
1954-55	23	19 266	385
1955-56	25	19 921	347
1956-57	29	20 392	425
1957-58	30	21,984	480
1958-59	33	23 458	597
1959-60	34	25 277	648
1960-61	38	26,336	805
1961-62	44	27 415	805

TABLE II

Number of students in each university in degree, postgraduate research and diploma courses—1962-63

University	Faculty of Law				Total
	Degree	Post-Graduate	Research	Diploma/ Certificate	
Agra	2,157	15	—	—	2 172
Aligarh	230	22	4	—	256
Allahabad	585	21	—	—	606
Andhra	150	15	—	—	165
Banaras	324	15	—	—	339
Baroda	458	—	—	—	458
Bhagalpur	300	—	—	—	300
Bihar	427	—	—	—	427
Bombay	3,186	279	18	—	3,483
Calcutta	3,640	—	5	—	3,645
Delhi	626	6	—	—	632
Gauhati	501	—	—	—	501
Gorakhpur	550	—	—	—	550
Gujarat	2,165	7	—	118	2,290
Jabalpur	273	26	—	—	299
Jodhpur	313	—	—	—	313
Karnatak	596	53	3	—	652
Kerala	463	17	—	—	480
Lucknow	1,589	59	8	—	1,656
Madras	1,073	35	—	—	1,108
Magadh	320	—	—	—	320
Marathwada	251	—	—	—	251
Mysore	1,045	31	—	—	1,076
Nagpur	698	5	—	—	703
Osmania	1,083	39	—	—	1,122
Panjab	735	—	—	—	735
Patna	559	18	—	—	577
Poona	473	36	—	—	509
Rajasthan	479	2	2	32	515
Ranchi	558	—	—	—	558
Saugar	1,136	—	—	—	1,136
Utkal	217	—	—	—	217
Vikram	1,020	—	—	—	1,020

TABLE III

Enrolment of law students in Indian universities during 1944-65
(All figures of the table include university departments as well as affiliated colleges)

S.No	University	Graduate Classes	Post graduate stage	Research	Diploma Course	Total
1	Agra	1,879	8	—	—	1,887
2	Aligarh	170	8	4	—	182
3	Allahabad	549	19	—	—	568
4	Andhra	97	14	3	—	114
5	Banaras	189	8	6	—	203
6	Banglore	1,121	42	—	—	1,163
7	Baroda	320	25	—	189	534
8	Bhagalpur	673	—	—	—	673
9	Bihar	810	—	—	—	810
10	Bombay	3,289	328	18	—	3,635
11	Calcutta	3,778	—	—	—	3,778
12	Delhi	1,05	10	—	—	705
13	Gauhati	527	—	—	—	527
14	Gorakhpur	713	15	—	—	728
15	Gujarat	2,425	123	—	132	2,680
16	Indore	585	29	—	—	614
17	Jabalpur	399	8	—	—	408
18	Jiwaji	328	45	—	—	373
19	Jodhpur	269	7	—	46	316
20	Karnatak	480	30	4	—	514
21	Kerala	491	29	4	—	524
22	Lucknow	1,536	48	13	65	1,662
23	Madras	954	21	—	186	1,161
24	Magadh	320	—	—	—	320
25	Marathwada	266	23	—	—	289
26	Mysore	228	—	—	—	228
27	Nagpur	348	15	—	—	363
28	Osmania	1,142	35	—	—	1,177
29	Punjab	974	9	—	—	983
30	Patna	534	15	—	—	549
31	Poona	507	33	—	—	540
32	Rajasthan	509	5	—	—	514
33	Ran. hi	494	—	—	50	544
34	Ravishankar	301	—	—	—	301
35	S. V. Vidyapeeth	105	—	—	—	105
36	Saugor	673	10	—	—	683
37	Shivaji	223	—	—	—	223
38	Udaipur	131	—	—	—	131
39	Utkal	428	—	—	—	428
40	Vikrama	752	21	—	—	773
Total		30,302	983	53	662	32,000

CHAPTER XIX

HISTORY

History has been taught in India since times immemorial. The sanskrit *puranas* are standard works of ancient Indian history and scholars in good old times were not considered scholars at all if they were not well grounded in *puranas*. A large number of *puranas* have been translated into Indian languages. Besides, there exist a large number of books (in sanskrit and regional languages) which incorporate the *puranic* knowledge. In fact '*purana* and *itihasa*' (both sanskrit words) always go together like Castor and Pollux, the two twins in Gemini, and together constitute the subdivision of the historical knowledge of the Hindus. Sanskrit works like *puranas* have a religious bias but works on '*itihas*' are pure history.

In the sanskrit universities like Varanaseya Sanskrit Vishva Vidyalaya or at Darbhanga, sanskrit works form part of the curricula. In other universities some acquaintance with *puranas* is expected from students who study sanskrit in M A and offer the particular groups. A reference to the course of studies prescribed by the Lucknow University would show that '*Ashoka and his Inscriptions*' by Dr. B. M. Barua is one of the books prescribed for students of B A (Hons.), in sanskrit for paper III. Among books prescribed for paper IV are vedic and post vedic culture, social culture in the vedic and post vedic period, (upto 650 A D) and ancient Indian political institutions in a brief historical survey. The books recommended include Ancient India and Indian Civilization by Masson Oursel and Willmann Grabowska, Vedic Age by Pusalkar and Mazumdar. For paper V, the books recommended include Hindu Law and its Sources (Vols I and II) by Dr. Ganganath Jha.

Similarly, students who offer sanskrit culture and civilization for B A (Hons.) have to appear in paper II constituting Fine Arts. Particulars of topics to be studied are:
Paper II—Fine Arts—Elements of Indian Aesthetics and Architecture, Sculpture and Painting.

- (a) *Elements of Indian Aesthetics* Indian theory of Fine Arts, the nature of aesthetic object in drama. Main ideas of Nyaya, Sankhya, Vedanta and Saiva Aesthetics, Indian ideas on the arts of music, architecture, iconography and painting.
- (b) *Architecture, Sculpture and Painting* Evolution of Indian architecture with particular reference to *Stupa*, *Chaitya* and *Viharas*, cave temple architecture, *Hunayana* and *Mahyana* phases with particular reference to *Bhaja*, *Karli*, *Nasik*, *Ajanta*, *Ellora*. Architecture of the Gupta period—*Nagara*, *Dravida* and *Vesara* styles of temples. *Bhuvaneshwara*, *Puri*, *Konarka*,

Khajuraho temples *Sunga* sculpture *Kushana* sculptures—*Gandhara* and *Mathura* *Amravati* sculptures *Gupta* sculptures—*Sarnath* *Ramgarh* *Ajanta* and *Bagh* paintings

Books recommended (1) K C Pandey, (a) *Indian Aesthetics* (in *History of Philosophy—Eastern and Western*) (b) *Comparative Aesthetics* Vol I, *Indian Aesthetics* and Vol II, *Western Aesthetics* (2) D N Shukla *Bharatiya Vastusastra* (3) Percy Brown: *Indian Painting* (4) Percy Brown *Indian Architecture* (5) Sahitya Darpana (Chapters III and IV) (6) Vishnu Dharmottara (7) *Manasara* (Relevant portions)

Similarly paper III includes topics, which in a way pertain to ancient Indian history

Paper III *Law and Legal Institutions* Outline of the history of legal literature, law of succession, debt, and crimes, different types of courts, their constitution and powers and law of procedure and evidence

The books recommended (1) Kane *History of Dharmashastra*, Vols I and II (2) Jolly *Hindu Law and Custom* (3) Sir C Varadachari *Hindu Judicial System* (4) Yajnavalkya *Smriti Vyavaharadhyaya* by Dr Gharpure (5) *Katyayanasmriti sarod-dhara* P V Kane (6) *Narada smriti* sacred books of the east series (7) *Manusmriti*

The fifth paper pertains to pure history Paper V—*History of India up to 1200 A D* Detailed history of the growth of Magadha under Haryankas, Saisunagas, Nandas and the Mauryas with special reference to Pali and Brahmanical literary sources Detailed Information (political) on the Sungas, Andhras and Kushans with special treatment of literary sources, both Brahmanical and Greek Detailed information of the political set up of the ancient India under the Guptas and Harsha, with special treatment of the epigraphic literary and numismatic sources Importance of post Harsha, northern dynasties with special reference to the literary sources Cultural value of the study of the history of this period

Books recommended (1) V A Smith *Early History of India*. (2) Dr R S Tripathi *The History of Ancient India* (3) Ray Chaudhari *Political History of Ancient India* (4) N. N Ghose *Early History of India* (5th edition)

Similarly the course prescribed for M A papers I and II and M A Part II in Sanskrit covers history of ancient India

M A and M A Part II

Paper I Vedic age social and religious institutions (a) *Yajna*. Importance of *Yajna* in Vedic religion The art and science of *Yajna* Fire and Vedic ritual, Rituals—'shrouta' and 'grihya' *yajna* 'Ishti' and 'Pashu' and 'soma' activities and ceremonies connected with *Yajna* The 'Ritwika' (priests of the sacrifice) status of women in rituals

(b) Origin and evolution of 'chaturvarnya' and 'chaturashrama'

Books recommended (1) Radha Kumud Mookerji Hindu Civilisation (2) Pusalkar and Majumdar Vedic Age (3) Gordon Childe The Aryans (4) MacDonell and Keith Vedic Index (5) Vedic Sahitya and Sanskriti by Pt Surya Kant (6) Vedic Devashastra by Dr Surya Kant. (7) *Rigveda bhashya Bhumika* (8) *Aitareya Bhramana Bhashya Bhumika* (9) *Aitareyalochana* by Satya Vrata Samasrami (10) Kane History of Dharma Shastra, Vol II

Paper II Post-Vedic age Social and political institutions (a) Caturvarnya, the four *asramas*, the four *purusharthas*, *sanskara* and its forms

(b) political set-up of the times *Samskaras* of *Rajasuya* and *Asvamedha* and their political importance Sovereignty and its form, political administration a general survey in the light of the *Kautilya*, *Artha Sastra* and the *Sukraniti*

The books recommended are (1) Pusalkar and Majumdar Age of Imperial Unity (relevant Portions only) (2) Pusalkar and Majumdar Classical Age (3) Kane History of Dharma Shastra, Vols I and II (4) Hindu Sanskara Dr Rajahali Pande (5) *Kautilya ki Rajya Vyayastha* Dr S I Pande

Or let us have a look at the course prescribed for M A in Sanskrit by the Madras University. For 'Selection B,' there are seven papers, each comprising 200 marks. The first paper pertains to Indian history and culture. The details of course of study prescribed for this paper are as follows

Branch—VII Sanskrit Section B provides the study of subjects which include Indian history and culture from the earliest time to 1200 A D. The syllabus prescribed is as follows

(i) Early Indologists—Prinseps, Sir William Jones, Max-Muller. (ii) Pre history—Harappa culture (iii) Proto history—Dravidian speakers Indo European speakers and their original home (iv) Culture of the Rig Veda, the later Vedic age, the Epics and the 'Puranas' (v) Sources of Indian history down to 1200—archaeological and literary, (vi) Age of the Buddha—oligarchies, republics. The rise of *Magadha*, religious reform and political speculation India's-contact with Iran (vii) Age of the *Mauryas*—Alexandria—Chandragupta—Kautilya—Ashoka and his edicts—contemporary Tamil kingdoms. Mauryan administration, art and architecture (viii) Age of invasions—Indo Greeks, Sakas, Pahalavas, Kushans. The Sungas and the Satavahanas—the *stupa* and the cave temple—the Sangam age—the Kshatrapas (ix) The age of the Guptas—social and political life—the Guptas and the *Vakatakas* art and architecture—Ajanta Bagh. The Pallavas—The Chalukyas—the Rashtrakutas—Transmission of Indian culture to south east Asia. Later Guptas—Harsha (x) The Rajputs—early Muslim invasions—the Pandyas, the Cholas—Chola—administration—their contribution to art and architecture

—Hindu religious revival Books recommended 1. Macdonell, A A,—India's Past 2 Basham, A L,—The Wonder that was India 3 Garratt, G.T—The Legacy of India

Similarly Islamic culture and civilization covers a good portion of history of the period and regions of Islamic culture and civilisation

History is the base of teaching not only in political science but international relations also In fact the courses of study prescribed in history, political science and international relations overlap and certain studies are common to the three disciplines As such, the inter disciplinary areas are large, and they are not being given here Whether it be economics, or *sociology* or international law or public administration, the historical background and the growth and development through the centuries form an integral part of studies (which strictly speaking fall in the jurisdiction of history) and are essential for perspective and proper appraisal Readers are referred to the courses of study prescribed for these disciplines and they would observe the wide grounds to which inter disciplinary areas extend We shall now pass on to some other aspects of teaching of history in our universities No figures have been compiled for these and it is therefore difficult to specify the strength As regards number of students offering history for M A (both previous and final) the figures for 1964-65 indicate the position as follows

TABLE I

Student enrolment in university departments and affiliated colleges in 1964-65

	<i>University departments</i>	<i>Affiliated colleges</i>	<i>Total</i>
1 History	2,190	1 853	4,043
2 Ancient history and archaeology	338	—	338
3 Ancient Indian history and culture	311	18	329
4 Modern and medieval history	247	—	247
5 Islamic history and culture	183	4	187
6 Ancient Indian culture	30	—	30
7 Western history	21	—	21
8 Comparative history	8	—	8
Total	3,328	1,875	5,203

All these branches can be grouped together under history. As far as enrolment in history (for M.A.) is concerned, it ranks fourth (among social science subjects) in point of popularity.

TABLE II

Total Enrolment in M A. (both previous and final) in 1964-65

<i>Discipline</i>	<i>Number</i>
1. Economics	9,888
2. Commerce	7,906
3. Political Science	5,563
4. History	5,203
5. Sociology	2,716
6. Geography	1,645
7. Psychology	1,672
8. Social work	532
9. Public administration	298

As regards the number of students doing research work in history the position is as follows :

TABLE III

Ph.D. Enrolment in History, 1964-65

	<i>University Departments</i>	<i>Affiliated Colleges</i>	<i>Total</i>
1. Ancient Indian history and archaeology	23	—	23
2. Ancient history	47	—	47
3. Comparative history	1	—	1
4. History	222	36	258
5. Islamic history and culture	2	—	2
6. Modern and Mediaeval history	10	—	10
7. Western history	3	—	3
Total	308	36	344

As regards the number of theses accepted for the award of Doctorate degree from 1960-61 to 1963-64 the position was as follows :

TABLE IV

	<i>1960-61</i>	<i>1961-62</i>	<i>1962-63</i>	<i>1963-64</i>
(i) Ancient Indian history and culture	1	3	5	9
(ii) Archaeology	3	2	7	9
(iii) History	15	20	26	35
(v) Islamic history and culture	—	1	4	—
Total	19	26	42	53

Let us examine how these figures compare with awards of doctorates in other disciplines

TABLE V

	1960 61	1961 62	1962 63	1963 64	Total
1 Economics	49	40	32	44	165
2 History	19	26	42	43	130
3 Political Science	28	28	38	18	112
4 Commerce	18	15	22	14	69
5 Sociology	13	7	21	9	50
6 Psychology	11	10	12	12	45
7 Geography	8	6	8	6	28
8 Social Work	1	—	1	—	2
9 Public Administration	—	—	—	1	1
Total	147	132	176	147	602

Thus if we take the total number for four academic years history ranks second, the first place going to economics

Now are being furnished four tables which would give an idea of the strength of enrolment, staff and staff student ratio in history departments in 1960 61 (i) 1961 62, and (iii) 1962 63 and (iv) staff student ratios in 1960 61, 1961 62 and 1962 63. The position as it existed in a few universities has been given to give a general idea about the conditions in Indian universities in general

TABLE VI

*Enrolment Staff and Staff Student Ratio in History Departments
(A Tabular statement of information received from the universities)
1960 61*

S No	University	Enrolment					Overall Teacher Pup l Ratio	
		Total	Graduate	Post- Graduate	Research	Total Staff		
1	Aligarh	115	114	22	9	20	1	7
2	Annamalai	63	56	12	—	7	1	10
3	Burdwan	45	—	43	—	5	1	3
4	Gauhati	140	—	139	1	6	1	24
5	Jadavpur	86	15	70	1	9	1	9
6	Karnatak	21	—	17	4	3	1	7
7	Lucknow	334	191	134	9	7	1	48
8	Nagpur	15	—	15	—	4	1	4
9	Pa jab	72	—	57	15	9	1	8
10	Patna	149	—	129	20	10	1	15
11	Rajasthan	51	—	41	10	4	1	13
12	S V Vidyapeeth	50	36	12	2	4	1	12
13	Saugor	49	28	15	6	18	1	3
14	Sri Venkateswara	21	9	12	—	9	1	2
15	Visva Bharti	37	37	—	—	6	1	6

TABLE VII

Enrolment, Staff and Staff-Student Ratio in History Departments
A tabular statement of information received from the universities
 1961-62
Enrolment

<i>S. University No.</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Post-Graduate</i>	<i>Research</i>	<i>Total Staff</i>	<i>Overall Teacher-Pupil Ratio</i>
1. Aligarh	188	164	17	7	20	1 : 9
2. Annamalai	38	24	10	4	8	1 : 5
3. Burdwan	84	—	84	—	8	1 : 10
4. Gauhati	180	—	180	—	5	1 : 36
5. Jadavpur	100	22	78	—	9	1 : 11
6. Karnatak	26	—	24	2	3	1 : 8
7. Lucknow	346	205	131	10	7	1 : 49
8. Nagpur	20	—	20	—	3	1 : 7
9. Panjab	58	—	43	15	10	1 : 6
10. Patna	163	—	141	22	11	1 : 15
11. Rajasthan	43	—	38	5	4	1 : 11
12. S.V. Vidyapeeth	72	57	14	1	4	1 : 18
13. Saugor	51	32	17	2	18	1 : 3
14. Sri Venkateswara	135	12	19	4	9	1 : 4
15. Visva Bharati	52	52	—	—	6	1 : 9

TABLE VIII

Enrolment, Staff and Staff-Student Ratio in History Departments
A tabular statement of information received from the Universities
 1962-63
Enrolment

<i>S. University No.</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Graduate</i>	<i>Post-Graduate</i>	<i>Research</i>	<i>Total Staff</i>	<i>Overall Teacher-Pupil Ratio</i>
1. Aligarh	175	146	21	8	20	1 : 9
2. Annamalai	31	18	13	—	8	1 : 4
3. Burdawn	98	—	98	—	7	1 : 14
4. Gauhati	168	—	164	4	9	1 : 18
5. Jadavpur	102	24	76	2	9	1 : 11
6. Karnatak	34	—	20	14	3	1 : 11
7. Kurukshetra	7	5	2	—	3	1 : 2
8. Lucknow	410	264	136	10	7	1 : 59
9. Nagpur	34	—	34	—	2	1 : 17
10. Panjab	49	—	36	13	9	1 : 5
11. Patna	165	—	140	25	11	1 : 15
12. Rajasthan	37	—	32	5	5	1 : 7
13. S.V. Vidyapeeth	89	70	19	—	4	1 : 22
14. Saugor	57	35	19	3	18	1 : 3
15. Sri Venkateswara	31	16	12	3	9	1 : 3
16. Visva Bharati	63	57	6	—	10	1 : 6

TABLE IX
Staff Student Ratio of Affiliated Colleges

S No	Universities	1960-61		1961-62		1962-63	
		G	PG	G	PG	G	PG
1	Agra	1 7 to 1 26	1 1 to 1 16	1 5 to 1 31	1 5 to 1 17	1 5 to 1 34	1 4 to 1 13
2	Bombay	1 3 to 1 13	1 3 to 1 4	1 1 to 1 17	1 3 to 1 13	1 3 to 1 14	1 2 to 1 6
3	Gujarat	1 17		1 16		1 14	
4	Kerala	1 13		1 16		1 14	
5	Madras	1 2 to 1 24	1 2 to 1 5	1 3 to 1 22	1 4 to 1 5	1 4 to 1 20	1 3 to 1 5
6	Nagpur	1 53	—	1 43	—	1 33	—
7	Panjab	1 11 to 1 30	1 2 to 1 30	1 7 to 1 31	1 4 to 1 31	1 8 to 1 43	1 3 to 1 21
8	Poona	1 22	1 2 to 1 20	1 13	1 16	1 7	1 15
9	Rajasthan	1 6 to 1 42	1 3 to 1 6	1 3 to 1 83	1 3 to 1 11	1 4 to 1 37	1 2 to 1 5
10	Saugor	1 17	—	1 12	1 1 to 1 4	1 18	1 2 to 1 4
11	Vikram	1 20	1 6	1 26	1 7	1 30	1 10

Before providing in detail the syllabus prescribed for M A (we have in case of history, selected the course prescribed by the Madras University as illustrative of the syllabi prescribed by Indian universities) we would like to give the views of certain eminent scholars on the various points connected with the teaching of history in Indian universities. A seminar on teaching and research in history was organised in 1964 and what follows hereafter has been adapted from the report of the seminar. The seminar was attended by eminent historians of India as well as from some foreign countries.

Objectives The consensus of opinion on the post graduate students in history in Indian universities was strongly in favour of specialisation. One of the considerations which weighed with the participants was the increasing proportion of future school teachers among the students in the postgraduate history classes, such students would professionally use their knowledge of history and hence should be professionally equipped. The requirements of a more general approach should be confined to B A classes. What to talk of specialisation in relation to teaching of history in schools, the principle was not being universally adhered to.

even in university departments as would be shown in subsequent paragraphs. It was further suggested that in order to economise on resources, duplication of centres in the same field, particularly of non Indian history, should be kept to a minimum—at least initially.

Data collected from ten universities showed that a number of teachers taught subjects (history, of people in regions other than India, etc.), which were outside their fields of specialisation. For obvious reasons, the names of universities and teachers are being omitted, but as the following table would show, teachers whose field of specialisation is ancient/mediaeval India are also teaching European history, world history, modern constitutions, American history, French revolution, or a teacher who has specialised in modern India, is also teaching American history, political thought, European history, teachers who have specialised in Indian history are also teaching history of the far East.

Even in Indian history there are fields of specialisation such as ancient, mediaeval or modern India, archaeology, epigraphy, but in some cases, a teacher whose field of specialisation is say mediaeval India, is teaching modern India and archaeology also. It may perhaps be argued that once a teacher masters a subject and has command over it he can handle allied branches and needs no specialisation in teaching the latter. This may be a good argument but is a poor substitute for teaching a subject by that teacher alone who has specialised in it.

We are giving below the information, collected in respect of teachers of history in some of the universities, their fields of specialisation and the subjects taught (Indian) as well as those pertaining to regions other than India etc.

TABLE X

Work Load of Teachers Lecturing in the Post graduate Departments
Abstract

The proformas on the work load of university teachers were sent to all the universities in India. Fourteen universities supplied the information asked for. Of these some could not supply information covering all the teachers in the department.

In the following abstract, the names of the universities have been omitted, each university being indicated serially by roman numerals. Information regarding the specialization of each teacher, the subject taught by him or her and the number of working hours per week is tabulated separately for the individual universities. 'Specialization' in this abstract means specialization either at the M.A. or the post M.A. research stage. Subjects studied as general papers for the M.A. degree in universities in India are not covered by this term.

<i>S No of Univ- ersity</i>	<i>Teacher's field of specialization</i>	<i>Subjects taught (Indian)</i>	<i>Subjects taught (regions other than India, etc)</i>	<i>Working hours per week*</i>
I	1 Ancient and mediaeval India	Indian history	European history, world history, modern constitutions, western political thought	8
	2 "	—	American history, French, revolution	12
	3 Mediaeval India	Ancient and modern India, archaeology,	—	14
	4 South East Asia (Recent Times)	—	Modern Europe, American history	13
II	1 Modern India	Mediaeval India	American history, political thought	9
III	1 Indian history, archaeology	Indian history	Historical method	10
	2 Modern India	"	European history	12
	3 Indian history	"	European history for east	12
	4 Indology	archaeology, pre history, Indian history	—	12
IV	1 Mediaeval and modern India	Mediaeval and modern India	British history	18
	2 —	"	Modern constitutions	18
	3 Modern India	Modern India	American history	18
	4 Modern India and political science	—	Modern Europe, world history (recent times) political thought	110
V	1 Modern India	Mediaeval and Modern India	Political thought, World history (recent times)	15
	2 Mediaeval and Modern India	Ancient, mediaeval and modern India	—	16
	3 Modern India	Modern India	British history	16
	4 Ancient India	Ancient India	Far East	16
	5 Mediaeval India	Mediaeval India	Political thought	15
	6 Modern India	Modern India	Modern constitutions	16
VI	1 Modern India	Modern India	Far East	18
	2 Modern India	—	—	17
			British history	9

* These include in many cases lectures to undergraduate classes. The latter is not included in the list of subjects taught.

<i>S. No. of Uni- versity</i>	<i>Teacher's field of specialization</i>	<i>Subjects taught (Indian)</i>	<i>Subjects taught (regions other than Indian, etc.)</i>	<i>Working hours per week</i>
VII	1. Ancient and modern India	Ancient India	S. E. Asia	12
	2. Ancient India	"	Ancient World	14
VIII	1. Modern India	Modern India	European history, Far east	6 4
	2. British and European history	—	European history Africa	9
	3. Mediaeval India	Mediaeval India	Modern Europe	18
	4. W. Asia (recent times)	Modern India	Far east	8
	5. Mediaeval and modern India, political science	Mediaeval India	Modern Europe	12
	6. Modern India	—	International relations, modern Europe	9
	7. Modern India and political science	—	African and American history	6
IX	1. Modern India	Modern India	European history	12
	2. Ancient India Modern India	Mediaeval India	British history	20
	3. Modern India	Modern India	European, British and far eastern history	15
	4. Mediaeval India	Mediaeval India	British and European history	12
	5. Ancient India	Ancient India	European and world history (recent times)	9
X.	1. Mediaeval India	Mediaeval India	History of Islam	16
	2. Ancient India	Ancient India	Ancient Near East, political thought	19
	3. "	Ancient India mediaeval India	Ancient Greece mediaeval Europe	15
	4. Modern India	Modern India	World history (recent times) inter- national organisa- tion	17

<i>S. No of University</i>	<i>Teacher's field of specialization</i>	<i>Subjects taught (Indian)</i>	<i>Subjects taught (regions other than Indian, etc.)</i>	<i>Working hours per week</i>
	5 Modern India	Modern India	Political thought, Modern constitutions	15
	6 International affairs	—	International relations, organisation, Modern Europe	17
	7	—	International law	16
	8 Modern India	Modern India	Mediaeval Europe, British history	18
	9 Ancient India	Ancient India, mediaeval India	—	3
XI	1 Modern India	Modern and mediaeval India	Historical method	12
	2 Modern India, Mediaeval India	—	Far east, Modern Europe	10
	3 Mediaeval India	Ancient and mediaeval India	British history	10
	4 British and American history	—	British history and European and American history	8
XII	1 Modern India	Mediaeval India	Modern Europe, far east	15
	2 Modern India British and European history	—	Middle east (recent times)	12
	4 Modern India	Modern India	British history, International law	

Contents of Postgraduate Teaching in History

The seminar was of opinion

(1) that at the M A stage limited fields should be selected for intensive study and wider fields such as the study of great civilisations covered at an earlier stage,

(2) that there should be a fair balance between Indian and non-Indian history,

(3) that even where it is desired to have a special emphasis on Indian history (a) the contemporary history of Asia and Europe should be studied mainly as a background for particular phases of Indian history, (b) the study of non Indian history should be useful in creating sense of perspective, (c) special periods of Indian history should be correlated with comparable and relevant periods of non Indian history;

(4) that both international relations and history of political thought should be included in the course prescribed for M A in history ;

(5) that there was the need for the study of source material at the M A stage ,

(6) that there was the need for the study of relevant languages and of source material in the original languages—but for this necessary training may be taken up at the post M A stage or at best, included optionally in the M A syllabus ,

(7) that the tendency noticed in some universities to shape the syllabus according to the requirements of the Union Public Service Examinations should be changed and the courses should be based on academic values only and the Union Public Service Commission be requested to follow the lead of the universities ,

(8) that the students of Indian history showed a tendency to repeat lectures almost verbatim in examination answers. They should instead be encouraged to argue with an open mind, to think consistently with logical method and form their own independent opinion about the nature and trend of the facts they gathered ,

(9) that adequate reading lists should be prepared for the use of students and these lists should include lists of monographs and articles relevant to the subject ,

(10) that there was a dearth of books compared to the excessive number of students in the classes, the ways in which this inequitable ratio could be mended were (a) the creation of departmental history libraries in which several copies of a book could be kept, (b) the reprint at a cheap price of essential or rare monographs, (c) mimeographs or typing several copies of essential articles for use in department libraries reproduction and collection of essential groups of source material. All these should be done at a low cost to benefit the general students rather than only a select few.

Assessment. Some of the points of criticism in regard to assessment are given below .

1 The general run of questions in examinations were exceedingly stereotyped and therefore conformed to ideas of history which had long become obsolete. A more intelligent approach to questions had to be evolved.

2 Questions should be set on the interpretation of what in Oxford was known as 'gobbets' of source material, or the answers at least, should show knowledge of the sources.

3 That within the same examination, some questions should be more weighted for gaining marks than the others. This could be done either by giving say 40 or 35 marks to one question out of

five optional ones, and say 20 to the rest or by setting comparatively difficult ones to be able to spot the perceptive examinee and some easier ones for the common students

4 That viva voce examinations should be organised to check on knowledge

But all these reforms are antecedent to an improvement in teaching standards and to the creation of a cadre of trained teachers

Research A major reason for the poor quality of research is that it attracts, by and large only very mediocre talents, the better students preferring more lucrative opportunities. The students to be admitted to the research courses should, hence, be selected very carefully. Besides, no supervisor should guide more than a reasonable number of researchers. A number of theses accepted for Ph.D. are of poor quality. It is suggested that the research guides should not undertake supervision in areas of which they have no specialised knowledge and where such guidance is not available, it is better that the students are encouraged to go to such centres as can offer adequate guidance and facilities for research in such fields.

Inter disciplinary approach Students (who will be our future historians) must receive good and relevant training in other social sciences. This can be so if (i) the students intending to take up postgraduate studies in history, opt for certain specified subsidiary subjects at the undergraduate stage, (ii) in history as the main discipline in M.A., there are provided optional courses in social sciences and courses of lectures on such science subjects are included in the teaching of history at the M.A. and the postgraduate stage. The above desideratum can also be achieved by regular inter disciplinary seminars at the teachers' level in individual institutions.

Teachers The general practice at the universities and colleges is that teachers usually dictate notes and recommend books of the nature of text books. At times details which are given are of a tedious type and do not interest students. Source books and books of advanced types are ignored by students. Seminars and tutorials do not form part of the general scheme of teaching in many universities. Entire attention is concentrated on lectures. Even in universities, where the seminar system prevails, it is not effective. Teaching in seminars and tutorials results in supplementary lecturing. There is hardly any discussion between students and teachers on controversial aspects of the subject.

The teaching at the M.A. stage should aim at far greater depth than is at present usual in our universities. The tradition of learning by rote and making little use of one's own judgment is strengthened by the authoritarian tendencies of our educational system. In a proper atmosphere of intellectual training, these

tendencies should be resisted. In the seminars and tutorials the students should be encouraged to express themselves freely and to criticise the teacher's views whenever necessary

In order to give a full and integrated picture of teaching in history in our universities we are giving excerpts from comments made by eminent professors—Indian and foreign—in relation to teaching of history in Indian Universities

Professor Holden Furber, University of Pennsylvania, expressed himself as follows :

"With regard to the M A program in general, my experience of teaching in India, 1950-51 (University of Madras) and 1962-63 (University of Bombay) leads me to feel that for all the candidates there should be a sharper difference between the first year and the second year. In the first year there could be a reduction in the number of papers and a requirement that examinations should be taken in those papers at the end of the first year. For the second year I would feel that the emphasis should not be on listening to lectures, but on the writing of a very limited number of research papers and reports. Such papers and reports to be judged not by external examination but by two readers from the local staff, one of whom has advised the student in regard to his paper. I would even say that perhaps two long research papers should be enough. At present there are far too many M A students who are writing as many as eight short papers which give no training whatever either in good writing or in research method

The whole M A program needs further emancipation from the tendencies which promote 'note learning' and dependence on specific books. I realize this is difficult in view of the large number of M A students not destined for a teaching career. I would by no means reduce the numbers, but I could say that more class room time devoted expressly to 'question and answer' to promotion of discussion would make the M A program more attractive to all the students. Such discussion inevitably broadens the students' grasp of English as well as the subject in hand."

Professor R C Majumdar's views

"One of the crying evils in the study of history today is the neglect to make use of it as an intellectual discipline and the tendency to regard it only as a store house of information. Another is an unnatural craze for research without a due appreciation of its nature, method, and the necessary equipment both intellectual and material. My views are mostly directed towards eradicating these evils

While I fully appreciate the efforts made by the University Grants Commission to improve post-graduate teaching and research in history I have grave doubts whether any good will result from them so long as a more intelligent and effective test is not devised to ascertain the real qualification of students seeking

admission to the post graduate course and to estimate the proficiency acquired by them when they are thought fit to be awarded a degree. In other words, there must be a higher standard for the B A examination in order that those who are admitted to the postgraduate course are really in a position to profit by it and willing to do so. There should also be a higher standard for M A to ensure that the teachers appointed in colleges and universities by virtue of their degrees are really qualified to guide the students in their studies and research.

In course of interviewing candidates for the government and university appointments, possessing high degrees in history, I have been shocked by the very superficial knowledge and the absence of any critical faculty displayed by most of them, even by those who have served as lecturers in first grade colleges for a number of years. One who had lectured for six years to B A. students in a well known college in a metropolitan city on the history of Europe, did not know of any country in Europe, which possessed an ancient civilization, like India, lost her freedom and recovered it only in the nineteenth century. He also told us that the Irish adopted the same method in their struggle for freedom as was adopted by Mahatma Gandhi in India. Can any system do any effective good so long as the students are taught by this type of teachers, and this type is by no means rare?

As regards research, the less said the better. As an examiner of doctoral theses in many universities I know what havoc is being created in the name of research. The specialization is going apace with vengeance. The candidates for doctor's degree, as a general rule, do not feel the necessity of having a general knowledge even of the period which has a great bearing on their theses not to speak of broadening the mind and sharpening critical faculty by a study of standard historical treatises. A candidate who wrote a thesis on the administration of a British Viceroy (I omit the name to avoid identity) when questioned about a connected problem during the administration of a predecessor who ruled about a decade before, said point blank, without any embarrassment that his concern was with the later Viceroy alone and not with his predecessor. One candidate dealing with slavery in ancient India had no knowledge of slavery in Greece or Rome or in any other country in the world. I need not cite more examples to show why I insist upon a research student possessing a wide general knowledge of history. So far as the development of critical judgment is concerned the situation is far worse. A candidate cited the example of a small rock-cut excavation by a king in ancient India as a positive evidence of the merciless exploitation of labourers and a dispute between members of two different castes as an indication of increasing class wars in ancient India. Instances of such uncritical assertions and of assumptions without any foundation in fact and

astounding statements without any basis or in direct contradiction of known facts may be multiplied to any extent. Yet these are approved by the supervisors and not infrequently, by the examiners appointed to adjudicate upon them.

I have devoted half a century to research work and I hope none will accuse me of an inherent dislike of aversion towards research. I regard it as highly important and one of the most important functions of universities. But research should be properly conducted and specialization at the cost of a sound general knowledge must be avoided. *Original research requires* a special kind of mental aptitude and intellectual equipment, and everyone is not suited for it. But the university teacher must have always the spirit of research—looking for new facts and new interpretation of known facts—and must communicate that spirit to his students. Anyone unwilling or unable to do this cannot properly fulfil the duty of a university teacher for postgraduate students.

Having discussed the teaching of history in its various aspects and opinions of two eminent historians—to indicate their assessment of the prevailing situation we now propose to give the course of studies prescribed for M A by the Madras University. The syllabus prescribed for B A naturally differs from university to university. History of India is compulsory. For optional papers the students have to opt for the histories of other countries.

The Kerala University provides for two groups: group 1 history and 2 Islamic history. Most of the other universities do not provide a separate group of Islamic history. The particulars are given below.

University of Kerala

History

The course extends over 3 years. There are two patterns as follows —

Pattern I One main subject with six papers and two subsidiary subjects with one paper each. All papers are of 3 hours duration. (6 hours of instruction for each of the six papers of the main subject and six hours of instruction for each of the two subsidiary subjects in a week)

Pattern II Two optional subjects of equal status with 4 papers in each and no subsidiary. All papers are of 3 hours' duration.

Pattern I (24 hours of instruction for each subject in a week)

I Group (i) a—History

Main

1 Paper I—Indian History I—upto 1526

2 Paper II—Indian History II—from 1526 upto the present day

3 Paper III—History of Kerala

4 Paper IV—Modern World History

5 Paper V } Any two of the following subjects —

6. Paper VI }

(i) Constitutional History of Britain from 1485 A D to the present day (ii) History of the U S A from 1775 A D. upto the present day (iii) History of Greece and Rome upto 395 A D. (iv) History of Modern Asia from 1850 A D upto the present day (v) History of Europe from 395 A D to 1500 A D (vi) History of Islam from Ancient times to 1258 A D.

Subsidiaries

7 Paper VII } Any two of the following subjects —

8 Paper VIII }

(i) General Economics (ii) Political Science (iii) Logic (iv) Sociology (v) Psychology. (vi) Geography.

(Each paper is of 3 hours and carries 100 marks)

2. Group (i) b—Islamic History

Main

1 Paper I—History of Muslim Civilisation from early times to the fall of the Umayyad Dynasty 2 Paper II—History of Muslim Civilisation during Abbasid period 3 Paper III—History of Muslim Civilisation in Spain and Sicily 4 Paper IV—The Ottoman Empire 5 Paper V—History of the Middle East in the 19th and 20th Centuries 6 Paper VI—Indo-Muslim Culture 1200-1700

Subsidiaries

7 Paper VII—One subject to be selected from General Economics, Political Science, Sociology 8 Paper VIII—One subject to be selected from Arabic, Urdu, Persian or Indian History from 1707 (provided that if a language subject is chosen it should not be the same as the language offered under Part II)

(Each paper is of three hours and carries 100 marks)

The details of syllabus for B A as prescribed by the University of Kerala cover about thirty pages and as such are not being given. The details of study prescribed for B A course in history by the University of Delhi are given below

History

(Schedule of Papers)

Paper I—HISTORY OF INDIA (From 1707 to 1947)

100 Marks

Papers II & III—Any *two* of the following — 100 Marks each

(a) British History (1485 1939)

(b) European History (1815 1939)

(c) Either (i) Ancient Indian History (upto 1000 A D —emphasis to be laid on cultural movements upto 600 A D)

Or (ii) Medieval Indian History 1000 A D —1707 A D

(Detailed Courses of Reading)

Paper I—HISTORY OF INDIA (from 1707 to 1947) 100 Marks

Books recommended —

P E Roberts, *History of British India*

Gurmukh Nihal Singh, *Landmarks in Indian Constitutional and National Development*

S C Sarkar and K K Datta *A Textbook of Modern Indian History*
(Also Hindi version of the same textbook)

E F Thompson and G T Garratt *Rise and Fulfilment of British Rule in India*

Percival Spear, *The Oxford History of Modern India, 1740 1947*

S R Sharma *Adhunik Bharat ka Nirmaan*

G S Sardesai, *Marathon ka Itihas*

H C Raychaudhuri, R C Majumdar & K K Datta, *Advanced History of India Part III* (Hindi version)

Papers II & III—Any *two* of the following — 100 Marks each

(a) British History (1485 1939)

Books recommended —

Ramsay Muir, *Short History of the British Commonwealth* (London, George Philip 1954 ed)

E H Carter and R A F Mears *History of British* (Oxford U P 1937)

Radha Krishna Sharma, *Great British ka Adhunik Itihas*

G M Trevelyan, *History of England*

(b) European History (1815 1939)

Books recommended —

A J Grant and H V Temperley, *Europe in the 19th and 20th Centuries*

C D M Ketelby, *History of Modern Times*

H A L Fisher, *History of Europe, Vol III*

E Lipson *Europe in the 19th and 20th Centuries*

E Lipson, *Unnisavni tatha Bisavni Sadi Men Yurop, 1815 1939*

C D M Ketelby, *Adhunik Kal ka Itihas*

Satyaketu Vidyalankar, *Yurop ka Adhunik Itihas, Part II*

Indio 15 D C Sircar (ed) *Select Inscriptions bearing on Indian History and Civilisation*

3 History of North India from the Death of Harsha down to 1526

Books Recommended

1 *Cambridge History of India* Vol 3 2 Majumdar (ed) *History and Culture of the Indian People*, Vol 4 3 Sathianathier, *History of India* Vols 1 and 2 4 Tripathi *History of Kanauj* 5 Basham *The Wonder that was India* 6 Ray *Dynastic History of North India*, Vols 1 and 2 7 Majumdar, Rayachaudhuri and Datta *Advanced History of India* Part 11 8 Ishwari Prasad *Mediaeval India* 9 Ishwari Prasad *A Short History of Muslim rule in India* (3rd Edition) 10 Srivastava *Sultanate of Delhi* (2nd Edition, 1953) 11 Tripathi *Some aspects of Muslim Administration* (2nd Edition, 1956) 12 Elliot and Dowson *History of India as told by its own historians* edited by Commissariat 13 Hodivala *Studies in Indo-Muslim History*

4 South India from the Sangam Epoch down to 1336 —

Books Recommended

1 Nilakantha Sastri *History of South India* 2 Slater *Dravidian Element in Indian Culture* 3 Mahalingam *South India Polity* 4 S Krishnaswami Aiyangar *Evolution of Hindu Administrative Institutions in South India* 5 Krishnaswami Aiyangar *Some contributions of South India to Indian Culture* 6 P T Srinivasa Iyengar *History of the Tamils* 7 Kanakasabhai *Tamils 1800 years ago* 8 Altekar *Rashtrakutas and Their Times* 9 Gopalachari *Early History of the Andhras* 10 Gopalan *History of the Pandyas of Kanchi* 11 Minakshi *Administration and Social Life under the Pallavas* 12 Nilakanta Sastri *The Pandyan Kingdom* 13 Nilakantha Sastri *The Cholas* (2nd Edition) 14 Sewell *Historical Inscriptions of South India* (Edited) by S Krishnaswami Aiyangar).

5 Outlines of the Civilisation of Western Asia and Egypt

Western Asia and Egypt

(i) *The Lands of Western Asia—The Valley of the Nile the, Tigris—Euphrates Valley* (ii) *Relative Chronologies in the Archaeology of Western Asia, Egypt, Palestine and Syria* (iii) *Anatolia, Mesopotamia and the Iranian plateau* (iv) *The Stone Age and the Neolithic Age in Palestine* (v) *Pre historic Cultures in the Tigris Euphrates Valley* (vi) *The Half and the Obelid Periods, the Uruk and the Temdet—Near periods* (vii) *Sumer, Akkad and Egypt during the Pre historic Age and the Age of the First Egyptian dynasty* (viii) *The Caucasus—the Hamites—Semitite and the Caspian Peoples* (ix) *Origin and Original Home of the Sumerians Earliest Sumero-Akkadian Dynasties up to the time of Sargon* (x) *From Sargon to Hammurabi* (xi) *The Hittite and Sumerian peoples* (xii) *Their history* (xiii) *The Coming of the Indo Europeans to Western Asia*

(viii) *Egypt from the Second dynasty to the Hyksos* (ix) *The art and archaeology of Western Asia The splendour that was Egypt. The proto literate, the early dynastic, the Akkadian, the Neo Sumerian, the Kassite, the Assyrian and the Neo Babylonian periods in Mesopotamia* (x) *The art and archaeology of Asia Minor under the Hittites of the Armenians and Phoenicians in Syria The art and architecture of Ancient Persia and Afghanistan*

Books Recommended

1 Garrod and Bate *The Stone Age of Mount Carmel* (London, 1937) 2 Friedrich Hrozný *Ancient History of Western Asia, India and Crete* (Prague, 1953) 3 Henri Frankfort *The Art and Architecture of the Ancient Orient* (London 1954) 4 M A Murray *The Splendour that was Egypt* (London, 1949) 5 Georges Contenaw *Everyday Life in Babylon and Assyria* (London, 1954) 6 R Ghirshman *Iran*.

6 Outline of the History of the Civilisation of South East Asia *South Eastern Asia*

(i) *The Stone Age in South Eastern Asia* (ii) *Ceylon Introduction of Buddhism into Ceylon, Archaeological History of the Island, Anuradhapura, Sigiriya, Polunaruwa* (iii) *Burma The Kingdoms of Pyu and the Mon in Burma the founding of Pagan and the era of the great temple builders, stages in the spread of Buddhism in Burma* (iv) *Siam The Mon period in Siam, the Kingdom of Dvaraveti, the Khmers, the Tai Kingdoms of Sukotai and Ayudhya* (v) *The Malay Peninsula and the Kingdom of Srivijaya* (vi) *Java and Bali The Sailendras, Indo Javanese art Chandu Mendoet Borbudar, Prambanam, the Majapahits* (vii) *Cambodia Its Indian Origin the Kingdom of Funa, the Kingdom of Angkor, Ancient Khmer art, The Great temple of Angkor, the Bayon Tai conquest of Cambodia* (viii) *Indian Elements in the culture of South East Asia*

Books Recommended

1 W L Mervius Jr *Early Man and Pleistocene Stratigraphy in Southern and Eastern Asia* 2 Reginald Le May *The Culture of South East Asia* (London, 1954) 3 H G Quaritch Wales *The Making of Greater India* 4 Benjamin Rowland *The Art and Architecture of India* (London 1953) 5 Henrich Zimmer *The Art of Indian Asia* (2 volumes) (New York, 1955)

7 Vijayanagar —

Books Recommended

1 Sewell *A Forgotten Empire* 2 Venkataramanayya *Vijayanagar, Origins of the City and Empire* 3 S Krishnaswami Aiyangar *Ancient India, Vol 2* 4 S Krishnaswami Aiyangar. *Sources of Vijayanagar History* 5 Nilakanta Sastri and Venkataramanayya *Further Sources of Vijayanagar History*. 6 Saleore

Social and Political Rise in the Vijayanagar Empire, 2 Vols 7. Mahalingam : *Administration and Social Life under Vijayanagar*. 8. Mahalingam : *Economic Life of the Vijayanagar Empire*. 9. Heras : *Aravida Dynasty of Vijayanagar*. 10. Longhurst : *Hampi Ruins*. 11. Purchas : *His Pilgrims*—Vol. 10.

8. History of the Mughals :—

Books Recommended :

1. Cambridge History of India, Vol. 4. 2. Ishwari Prasad : *Short History of Muslim Rule in India* (3rd edition). 3. Praudm : *The Mughal Empire*. 4. K C. Majumdar : *The Imperial Age of the Mughals* (2nd edition, 1940). 5. Srivatsava : *The Mughal Empire*. 6. Sathianathier : *History of India*, Vol. 2. 7. Garratt and Edwardes : *Mughal Rule in India*. 8. Sarkar : *Mughal Administration* (4th edition). 9. Sri Ram Sharma : *Mughal Government of Administration* 10 Gupta : *Rise of the Sikhs* (2nd edition, 1932). 11. Elliot and Dawson : *History of India as told by its own Historians*, Vols 6 and 7. 12. Abdul Fazl's *Ain i Akbari* (Trans. by Ranking Haig and Lowe—2nd edition by Sarkar. 13 Bilimoria (ed.) : *Letters of Aurangazib*.

9. History of the Mahrattas :—

Books Recommended .

1. Kincaid and Parasnis : *History of the Marathas*—3 Vols. 2. Sardesai : *New History of the Marathas*, 7 Vols 3. Sardesai : *Main currents in Maratta History*. 4 Ranade . *Rise of the Maratha Power* 5. Sen : *Administrative System of the Marattas*. 6 Sarkar : *Snoji and His Times* (4th edition). 7. Sen : *Foreign Biographers of Sivaji*. 8. Sinha : *Rise of the Peshwas*. 9. Joshi : *Clash of Three Empires* 10. Patwardhan and Rawlinson : *Source-Book of Maratha History*.

10. History of South India from 1555 to 1805 —

Books Recommended :

1. Sathianathier : *Nayakas of Madura*. 2. Sathianathier : *Tamilakam in the 17th Century*. 3. Cambridge History of India, Vol 5. 4. Dodwell. *Dupleix and Clive*. 5. Wilks : *History of Mysore*. 6 N. R. Sinha : *Hyder Ali*. 7. Roberts : *India under Wellesley*. 8 C. S Srinivasachari : *History of Madras* 9. Vriddhagirisani : *Nayakas of Tanjore*.

11. Modern India from 1773 :—

Books Recommended :

1. Cambridge History of India, Vols 5 and 6 2. Roberts . *History of British India* (3rd edition) 3 /Garratt and Thompson: *Rise and Fulfilment of British Rule in India* 4. Phillips : *East India Company*. 5. Yusuf Ali : *Cultural History of India during the British*

Period. 6. Gurmukh Nihal Singh : *Landmarks in Indian Constitutional and National Development* (3rd edition). 7. Keith : *Constitutional History of India*. 8. Ramsay Muir (ed.) : *The Making of British India*. 9. A. C. Bannerji : *Making of the Indian Constitution*—2 Vols

12. History of Indian Art and Architecture.

Books Recommended

1. Smith : *A History of Fine Art in India and Ceylon* (ed. by Codrington). 2. Havell : *Indian Architecture* 2 Vols. 3. Brown : *Indian Architecture*, 2 Vols. 4. Brown : *Indian Painting* (5th edition). 5. Kramrisch : *Indian Sculpture*. 6. Kramrisch : *Art of India through the Ages*. 7. Vogel : *Buddhist Art in India, Ceylon and Java*. 8. Coomaraswamy : *The art of India and Indonesia*. 9. Coomaraswamy : *Rajput Painting*. 10. Ashton : *The Art of India and Pakistan*. 11. Gangoly : *Indian Architecture* (2nd edition, 1947.) 12. Gangoly : *South Indian Bronzes*. 13. T. G. Aravamudan : *Portrait Sculpture in South India*. 14. Wilkinson : *Mughal Painting*.

13. History of Africa from 1486 :—

Books Recommended :

1. *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol 1. 2. Prestage : *Portuguese Pioneers*. 3. Ramsay Muir : *Expansion of Europe* (5th ed) 4. Townsend and Peake : *European Colon of Expansion* 5. Harris : *Europe and Africa*. 6. Hoskins : *European Imperialism in Africa*. 7. Morel : *The Black Man's Burden* 8. Slorne : *Greater France in Africa* 9. Young : *Egypt*. 10. Jones and Munro : *History of Abyssinia*. 11. Walker : *A History of South Africa* (2nd. ed , 1940).

Group B

1 History of the Mediterranean World from the Persian Wars to the Death of Augustus :—

Books Recommended :

1. *Cambridge Ancient History*, Vols 3 to 9. 2. Cary : *A History of the Greek World* 3. Cary : *A History of Rome* (2nd edition). 4. Rostovtzeff : *A History of the Ancient World*, No. 2 5. Seignobos : *A History of Ancient Civilisation*. 6. Stobart : *The Glory that was Greece*. 7. Stobart : *The Grandeur that was Rome*. 8. Livingstone (ed) : *The Legacy of Rome*. 9. Bailey (ed) : *The Legacy of Rome*. 10. Bevan : *The World of Greece and Rome* 11. Holland Rose : *Mediterranean in the Ancient World* (2nd edition). 12. Fowler : *The City-State of the Greeks and the Romans*. 13. Osborn : *Our Debt to Greece and Rome*. 14. Tucker : *Life in Ancient Athens* 15. Tueller : *Life in the Roman World* 16. Botsford : *A Source-book of Ancient History*.

2. The Empire and the Papacy.—

Books Recommended

- 1 *Cambridge Mediaeval History*, Vol 5 2 Bryce *The Holy Roman Empire* (5th edition) 3 Tout *The Empire and the Papacy* 4 Medley *The Church and the Empire* 5 Deanesby *A History of the Mediaeval Church* 6 Henderson *A History of Germany* (Rev ed, 1916) 7 Stubbs *Germany in the Early Middle Ages* 8 Stephens *Hilderbrand and his Times* 9 Henderson (ed) *Select Historical Documents of Middle Ages*

3 *Advanced History of the Middle East 570-1258 AD**Books Recommended*

- 1 Sbaikb Inayatullah *Geographical Factors in Arabian Life and History* 2 Hitti *The History of the Arabs* 3 Hitti *The History of Syria* 4 T W Arnold *Caliphate* 5 T W Arnold *Legacy of Islam* 6 Margoliouth *Mohammed and the Rise of Islam* 7 Gbulam Sarwar *The Holy Prophet* 8 Syed Ameer Ali *The History of the Saracens* 9 Syed Ameer Ali *The Spirit of Islam* 10 Sir William Muir *The Caliphate* 11 Sir William Muir *Life of Mohammed* 12 T W Arnold *Preaching of Islam* 13 J Zaidan *Omayyads and Abbasids* 14 N A Faris *Arab Heritage* 15 J Hell *Arab Civilisation* 16 Guy Le Strange *The Lands of the Eastern Caliphate* 17 Osborne *Islam under the Caliphs of Baghdad* 18 Khuda Baksh *Orient under the Caliphs* 19 Khuda Baksh *History of Islamic Civilisation* (2 Vols) 20 Khuda Buksh *Studies—Indian and Islamic* 21 Khuda Baksb *Politics in Islam* 22 Mez *Renaissance of Islam* (Tr by Khuda Baksh and Margoliouth) 23 Carl Brokelmann *History of Islamic People* 24 Gustave Von Grunebaum *Mediaeval Islam* 25 Gibb *Islam and the West* 26 Ahiya *The Crusades in the Later Middle* 27 Lanepoole *Saladin* 28 Wellhausen *Arab Kingdom and its Fall* 29 Guy le Strange *Bagdad under the Abbasid Caliphate* 30 George Sarton *Introduction to the History of Science*, 3 Vols (Relevant portions) 31 *Encyclopaedia of Islam* (Relevant portions)

4 *Moors in Spain, Sicily and North Africa —**Books Recommended*

- 1 T W Arnold *Legacy of Islam* 2 O Leary *History of the Fatim d Dynasty* 3 Lanepoole *Egypt in the Middle Ages* 4 Lane poole *Muhammadian Dynasties* 5 Conde *History of Domination of the Arabs in Spain* (Tr by Mr. Jonathan Foster) Vols I, II and III 6 Joseph McCabe *Splendour of Moorish Spain* 7 Dozy *Spanish Islam* 8 Lanepoole *Art of Saracens in Egypt* 9 Lanepoole *Moors in Spain* 10 Gayangos *History of the Muhammadan Dynasties in Spain*

5 *Ottomon Turks, 1250-1924 A D —**Books Recommended*

- 1 Lanepoole *The Story of Turkey* 2 G W F Stripling *The Ottoman Turks and the Arabs* 3 A H Lyber *The Government of*

the Ottoman Empire 4 W Miller *The Ottoman Empire and its Successors* 5 M L Shay *The Ottoman Empire from 1720 1734 (as revealed in the Despatch of the Venetian Baili)* 6 N Souza *The Capitulatory Regime of Turkey* 7 Kohn *A History of Nationalism in the East* 8 Toynbee and Kirkwood *Turkey* 9 Allen *The Turkish Reformation* 10 Heward *The Partition of Turkey* 11 E G Mears *Modern Turkey* 12 A E Yalman *The Development of Modern Turkey—Measured by its Press* 13 V J Puryear *International Economics and Diplomacy in the Near East*

6 Constitutional History of England upto 1485 —

Books Recommended

1 Taswell Langmead *English Constitutional History* (10th edition, 1947) 2 Maitland *Constitutional History of England* (ed by Fisher) 3 White *Making of the English Constitution* 4 Joliffe *Constitutional History of Mediaeval England* 5 Pollard *Evolution of Parliament* (2nd edition) 6 Jenks *Book of the English Law* (5th edition, 1953) 7 Adams and Stephens *Select Documents of English Constitutional History*

List of Documents for study

1 Stubbs—*Select Chapters* 2 Laws of Alfred (C 890) 3 Edgar's Ordinance of the Hundred (959 75) 4 Adams and Stephens—*Select Documents of English Constitutional History* 5 Ordinance of William I separating the Spiritual and Temporal courts (undated) 6 Henry I's Charter of Liberties (1100) 7 The Constitutions of Clarendon (1164) 8 The Assize of Clarendon (1166) 9 The Assize of Northampton (1176) 10 Assize of Arms (1181) 11 Form of proceeding on the Judicial Visitation (1194) 12 Writ of Summons to the Council of St Albans (1213) 13 The Great Charter of Liberties (1215) 14 Provisions of Oxford (1258) 15 The Third Statute of Westminster (1290) 16 Writ of Summons to Parliament (1295) 17 Confirmation Cartarum (1297) 18 The New Ordinances (1311) 19 Revocation of the New Ordinances (1322) 20 Articles of Accusation against Edward II (1327) 21 (a) Act to secure the Rights of Peers (1341) 21 (b) Revocation of the Above Statute (1341) 22 Grant on Conditions (1348) 23 The Statute of Treasons (1352) 24 Statute of Praemunire (1353) 25 Act concerning Justices of the Peace (1361) 26 Impeachment of Lyons (1376) 27 Account of Expenditure required by Parliament (1378) 28 Delegation of powers by the Parliament of Shrewsbury (1398) 29 Deposition of Richard II (1399) 30 Haxey's case (1399) 31 Commons to originate Money Bills (1407) 32 King Agrees not to alter the Petitions of the Commons (1414) 33 Law regarding the Shire Electorate (1429)

7 History of European Expansion from 1453 to 1760

Books Recommended

1 Cambridge Modern History—Vols 1 to 6 (relevant portions) 2 Prestage *Portuguese Pioneers* 3 Davies *The Golden Century*

- of Spain 4 Johnson *Europe in the Sixteenth Century* 5 Ogg *Europe in the Seventeenth Century* 6 Johnson *Age of the Enlightened Despots* (15th Edition) 7 Wakeman *Ascendancy of France* 8 Seeley *Expansion of England* 9 Egerlon *A History of British Colonial Policy* 10 Marriott *European Commonwealth* 11 Mahan *Influence of Sea power on History* 12 Robinson and Beard *Readings in Modern European History*
8 History of Europe from 1789 —

Books Recommended

- 1 Grant and Temperley *Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries* (5th edition) 2 Lipson *Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries* (6th Edition) 3 Kettlehey *A History of Modern Times* (New Edition, 1940) 4 Ramsay Muir *A Brief History of Our Own Times* (4th Edition) 5 Mowat *Contemporary Europe and Overseas* 6 Holland Rose *Development of European Nations—2 Vols* 7 Slossan *Twentieth Century Europe* 8 Marriott *Ramaking of Europe* (21st Edition) 9 Marriot *Europe and Beyond* 10 Hearnshaw *Main Currents of European History*.
9 Constitutional History of England from 1485 —

Books Recommended

- 1 Taswell Langmed *English Constitutional History* (10th Edition, 1947) 2 Maitland *English Constitutional History* (Edited by Fisher) 3 Adams *Constitutional History of England* (New Edition, 1935) 4 Keir *The Constitutional History of Modern England* (5th Edition, 1953) 5 Anson *Law and Custom of the Constitution*, Vol I (5th Edition, 1922), Vol 2 and 3 (4th Edition, 1935) 6 Dicey *Law and the Constitution* 8 Robertson *Select Statutes, Cases and Documents to illustrate English Constitutional History* (9th Edition, 1949)

List of Documents for study

- 1 Adams and Stephens—*Select Documents of English Constitutional History* 2 Establishment of the Court of 1487 3 Strode's case (1512) 4 Ecclesiastical Appointments Act (1534) 5 Act of Supremacy (1534) 6 The Lex Regia (1539) 7 Oath of a Privy Councillor (1571) 8 Commission of a Justice of the Peace (1579) 9 Resolution on the Norfolk Election case (1586) 10 Queen's Message with regard to the Monopolies (1601) 11 Act in Shirley's case (1604) 12 Bate's case (1606) 13 Calvin's case (1608) 14 The Petition of Right (1628) 15 Act for the Abolition of the Star Chamber (1641) 16 The Grand Remonstrance (1641) 17 Sentence of the High Court of Justice on Charles I (1649) 18 The Instrument of Government (1653) 19 Declaration of Breda (1660) 20 Danby's Impeachment (1679) 21 Habeas Corpus Act (1679) 22 Hale's case (1689) 23 The Civil List (1689) 24 The Mutiny Act (1689) 25 Bill of Rights (1689) 26 Act of Settlement (1701) 27 Place Act (1707) 28 Septennial Act (1716) 29 Passage

Bill (1719) 30 Mansfield's Decision against General Warrants (1764) 31 Dunning's Resolution (1780) 32 Fox's Liberal Act (1792) 33 Reform Act (1832) 34 Reform Act (1867) 35 Supreme Court of Judicature Act (1873) 36 Appellate Jurisdiction Act (1876) 37 Reform Act 1884) 38 Robertson—*Select Statutes, Cases and Documents* (9th edition, 1949) 39 Skinner v—East India Company (1666) 40 Sbirley v—Fagg (1675) 41 Ashby v—White (1704) 42 Stockdale v Hansard (1839) 43 Parliament Act (1911) 44 Statute of Westminster (1931)

10 History of International Relations and Diplomacy from 1878 —

Books Recommended

1 Schumann *International Politics* (5th edition) 2 Mowat *A History of European Diplomacy* 3 Gooch *Recent Relations in European Diplomacy* (4th edition) 4 Mansergh *The Coming of the First World War* 5 Fay *Origins of the First World War* (New Edition 1950) 6 Somervell *Between Two Wars* 7 Namier *Diplomatic Prelude* 8 Rayner *Twenty Years' Truce* 9 Carr *International Relations* 10 Carr *Twenty Years' Crisis* (2nd Edition) 11 Murray *From the League to the United Nations* 12 Gathorne Hardy *A Short History of International Affairs* (4th edition) 13 Lippmann *The Cold War* 14 Hartmann (ed) *Basic Documents of International Relations*

11 History of the United States of America from 1788

Books Recommended

1 S E Morison and H S Commager *The Growth of the American Republic* (2 volumes, 1950 edition) 2 Edward Channing *History of the United States* (6 volumes) 3 H U Faulkner *American Economic History* 4 T A Bailey *A Diplomatic History of the American Peoples* 5 A H Kelly and W A Harbison *The American Constitution, its Origins and Development* 6 H S Commager *Documents of American History* 7 M Curu *The Growth of American Thought* 8 F J Turner *The Frontier in American History* 9 R Hofstadter *The American Political Tradition*

12 History of the Far East from 1843 —

Books Recommended

1 Latourette *A Short History of the Far East* (2nd ed 1951) 2 Latourette *The Chinese, their History and Culture* (3rd ed) 3 Latourette *A History of Japan* 4 Lattimore *Making of Modern China* 5 Vinacke *A History of the Far East in Modern Times* (4th edition) 6 Clyde *The Far East* (2nd ed) 7 Hudson *The Far East in World Politics* 8 Owen *Imperialism and Nationalism in the Far East*

CHAPTER XX

POLITICAL SCIENCE

Economics and politics (as the political science is generally referred to in teaching institutions) are the basic social sciences, for other disciplines have grown out of them. In the pre-university stage, the subject matter of political science is taught as 'civics'—the topics being the same there is difference in nomenclature perhaps it is considered a little too high sounding to call it political science when the topics of teaching are generally rights and duties of a citizen, election to local bodies, duties of a municipal corporation etc.

The Indian constitution invariably figures in the intermediate/graduate courses and the British constitution also usually forms a part of the syllabi. There is partiality for teaching the British constitution because, India was a colony of the British till 1947, when it gained independence, and in order to understand the historical development of the present political status, one has to study the British constitution, for the Indian government had been under the tutelage of the U K Government and the laws which governed the Indian people were the handiwork of the British jurists.

Some constitutions (such as those of China, U S S R, U S A, Switzerland etc) are also being included in the B A course, to give students an idea of constitutions in other countries. But the number of countries being so large the authorities prescribing the curricula have to pick and choose. The constitutions of the U S A and the U S S R are obviously chosen on account of their being outstanding world powers today and Switzerland on account of the novelty—how a small country divided into cantons and communes can emerge unsinged out of the ceaseless fires of two world wars, in which a number of constitutions were consumed, illustrating the old saying 'the old order changeth yielding place to new'.

A review of the teaching of political sciences shows that the educational authorities have not given due importance to the study of political conditions in and constitutions of the so-called politically unimportant countries.

We shall first take up those studies which fall in the interdisciplinary areas of history, sociology, culture and political science. Some universities like the Magadh have a course of Ancient Indian and Asian studies for M A.

M A in Ancient Indian and Asian Studies

There are three compulsory papers

1 Early history of the south east and eastern Asia

- 2 Mediaeval and modern history of south east and eastern Asia
- 3 Cultural history of south east and eastern Asia (religion, philosophy and art)

Besides these compulsory papers there are two following groups of five papers each

China and Japan

- 1 Political and administrative history of modern China and Japan
- 2 Social and economic history of China and Japan
- 3 Art, religion and philosophy of China
- 4 Art religion and philosophy of Japan
- 5 Language and literature of China and Japan

Or

Ancient India

- 1 Indian Archaeology
- 2 Political history of ancient India (600 B C 647 A D)
- 3 Ancient Indian polity
- 4 Social and economic history of ancient India (up to 647 A D)
- 5 Early Indian epigraphy and numismatics

Books recommended

Compulsory Paper I

- 1 R C Majumdar, *Suvarnavipa Champa, Hindu Colonies in the Far East*
- 2 B Chatterji, *Indian Cultural Influence in Cambodia*
- 3 K A Nilakantha Sastri, *History of Srivijaya*
- 4 (a) D G E Hall, *History of South East Asia* (relevant parts)
- 4 (b) Creal, *Birth of China*
- 5 Wilhelm, *Chinese Civilization*
- 6 Latourette, *A Short History of the Far East* (relevant part)
- 7 Samson, *History of Japan*
- 8 *Cambridge History of India* Volume 1
- and 9 *History and Culture of the Indian People* (first six volumes, relevant chapters on Ceylon)

Compulsory Paper II

- 1 D G E Hall, *History of South East Asia* (relevant parts)
- 2 Vinacke *History of the Far East in Modern Times*
- 3 Latourette *A short History of the Far East*

Compulsory Paper III

- 1 May, *Culture of South East Asia*
- 2 B R Chatterji, *India and Java*
- 3 P C Bagchi, *India and China*
- 4 Ghose-Hsiang Kuang, *Indo Chinese Relations*
- 5 Hackin J etc, *Studies in Chinese Art and Some Indian Influences*
- 6 P Bose, *Indian Colonies of Champa*
- 7 Wales, H C Q *The Making of Greater India*

1. Group on China and Japan

- Paper I—1 Vinacke, *History of the Far East in Modern Times* (relevant portions)
- 2 R K Reischauer, *Japan—Government*

and Politics 3 Edwin Reischauer, *Japan—Past and Present* 4 Kituzafar—*The Constitution of Japan* 5 Vinacke—*Modern Constitutional Development in China (1898-1912)*

Paper II Social and Economic History of China and Japan Zanaga—*Japan since Perry*

Paper III (Art, Religion and Philosophy of China)

1 *Source of Chinese Tradition* compiled by William Theodore In Barrywing Tsil chaw Burlon wason (Columbia Press, New York, 1960) 2 Harley Farusworth Macknair, *China* (University of California Press, Berlland Tos Angelad California, 1946) 3 Rene Groussel—*The Rise and Splendour of the Chinese Empire* (Geoffery Ble, Loodon, 1952) 4 H G Creal, *Chinese Thought—from Confucius to Mao Tse Tung* 5 Oswald Siren, *Chinese Painting*, 6 K L Reichelt, *Religion in Chinese Government*

Paper IV

(Art, Religion, Philosophy of Japan)

1 *Sources of Japanese Tradition*, Compiled by Ryusku Tsunoda and others (Columbia and Oxford University Press 2 J E Keden *Japan before Buddhism* (Thames and Hudson, Toudim, 1961) 3 George Samson—*Japan, Short Cultural History* 4 A C Underwood—*Shintoism*, 5 Cornell, *Buddhism and Buddhism in Japan* 6 Yukis Yasbire—*Two Thousand Years of Japanese Art* 7 M Anasaki—*History of Japanese Buddhism*

Paper V

(Language and Literature of China and Japan)

1 Herbert A Giles—*A History of Chinese Literature* 2 W G Aston—*History of Japanese Literature* (Latest edition) 3 Donald Keone—*Japanese Literature* (New York, 1953) K S Latowrette—*Chinese their History and Culture*

II Group on Ancient India

Paper I

1 *Indian Archaeology* (Annual review published by the Department of Archaeology Government of India) (relevant chapter) 2 H D Saakalia, *Indian Archaeology to day* 3 Wheeler, *Early History of India and Pakistan* 4 Subba Rao *Personality of India* 5 Stuart Piggot *Pre historic India* 6 Marshall, *Moh n-only* 3 Volum's *Ancient India* (Deptt of Archaeology relevant)

Paper II

1 H C Raychaudhuri—*Political History of Ancient India*, sixth edn 2 *Cambridge History of India*, Volume I 3 *History and Culture of the Indian People*, Volumes II and III 4 K A Nilakaantha Sastri *Comprehensive History of India* (Mauryas and Satavahanas), Volume II 5 D R Bhandarkar, *Asoka* 6 Altekar and Majumdar *The Gupta—Vakataka Age* 7 B P Sinha, *Decline of the Kingdom of Magadha*

Paper III

1 K P Jayaswal, *Hindu Polity* 2 Ghoshal, *A History of Indian Political Ideas* 3 Altekar, *State and Government in Ancient India* 4 Bhandarkar, *Some Aspects of Ancient Indian Polity* 5 Shamasatry, *Kutilya's Arthashastra* 6 R S Sharma *Aspects of Political Ideas and Institutions in Ancient India* 7 U N Ghoshal, *Hindu Revenue system*

Paper IV

1 P Prabhu—*Hindu Social Organisation* 2 Fick, *Social Organisation in North Eastern India in Buddha's Time* 3 R S Sharma *Sudras in Ancient India* 4 Altekar *Position of Women in Hindu Civilisation* 5 A N Bose, *Rural and Social Economy of Northern India* 6 S K Maitry *Economic Life in Gupta Period* 7 Bandopadhyaya, *Economic Life and Progress in Ancient India* 8 Warmingston *Trade and Commerce between India and the Roman Empire* 9 Hutton *Caste in India*

Paper V

1 Buhler, *Indian Palaeography* 2 G S Ojha *Bharatiya Prachina Lipimala* 3 Hultzsch C I I, I 4 Sten Koow C I I II 5 Fleet C I I III 6 D C Sircar, *Select Inscription* (Inscription to be selected by the teacher with particular reference to Mauryan and Gupta Periods) 7 Allan *A Catalogue of Coins of Ancient India* 8 Chakravarty *Studies in Ancient Indian Numismatics* 9 Altekar *Catalogue of the Gupta Gold Coins in the Bajana Hoard* 10 A K Narain, *Indo Greeks* 11 Whitehead, *Catalogue of Coins in the Punjab Museum* 12 Allan, *Catalogue of Indian Coins (Gupta Dynasty)*

M A in African Studies

The Delhi University also provided for M A degree in African studies. There were four papers in M A previous

Paper I Economic and Social Geography of Africa

(a) Physical Background to the study of the economic and social geography of Africa (b) Resource Pattern and resource use (c) Communications and Trade (d) Social geography of Africa
Paper II General History of Africa

(a) Early historical background (b) West African empires and civilisation (c) The era of European advent and expansion in south, central and eastern Africa

Paper III India Since 1858

(a) Settlement of the political map of India (b) The national movement in India (c) Constitutional development of India (d) Socio economic progress (in India) (e) Socio cultural progress in India (f) India's foreign relations (g) Assessment of western impact on India

Paper IV Elements of Social Science with Special Reference to Africa

(a) Scope of the subject inter-relations between the social sciences (especially sociology, social anthropology, history, psychology, political science) (b) Nature and form of group life and social relations (c) Some specific aspects of African culture

There were four papers in M A final examination in African studies

M A (Final)

Paper I Methodology

The course in this subject, which was compulsory for all candidates for the M A in African studies, was conducted in two parts. The first consisted of a series of lectures designed to give the candidates, a general training in the principles and mechanics of academic research in accordance with the most up to date and universally accepted standards. The second part of the course consisted of practical exercises prescribed from time to time by the supervisors of the subject in which a candidate intended to specialise in the second year of the M A. course. Here the emphasis was on the application to specific topics or projects of the principles and methods already studied in the first part of the course.

Accordingly the examination paper in this subject was divided into two parts and questions were set in the first part on *Theoretical Methodology* and in the second part on *Applied Methodology*. In order to obtain a pass in the paper as a whole a candidate was required to attempt the requisite number of questions from both parts.

1 (a) *Theoretical Methodology*

(a) The scope of scientific methodology, its importance as an academic discipline, (b) the techniques of research in the social science variety and provenance of the mechanics of research, (c) special problems of scientific research in African studies, (d) research apparatus collection of data—preparation of essay, dissertation thesis, reports—organisation and ordering of materials—table of contents—bibliography

(b) *Applied Methodology*

A candidate had the option to offer any one of the following

1. Option A—Sociology

(a) Types of theories in social science, possibilities of generalisation and of explanation—relation between theory and research in the social study of Africa—possibilities of comparison

especially in the field of African studies—relations between theoretical and applied social science with special reference to African Studies—value judgments in the social sciences—the importance of objectivity, (b) Concepts of structure and function—main forms of social and cultural change—concepts of growth and progress—main moving factors in society (technological, economic factors, education, ideas, values) statics and dynamics in the social study of Africa, (c) techniques of research (observation, interviews, questionnaires, documents)—role of participation, possibilities of measurement, (d) period of field work or of other form of research

2. Option B—Economics

The ground covered included the following topics

(a) elementary economic analysis—theories of demand and supply, distribution and exchange, (b) the use and abuse of statistics and formulae in the study of economics, (c) correlation and divergence in the application of certain economic concepts and values to African territories, (d) African dependencies within the sterling area, problems of capital formation—financing of investments fiscal policies, (e) particular problems of research in African economics, collection of data, analysis and interpretation of statistical and other data, the employment and limits of the method, of interviews, questionnaires and observation, preparation of reports, essays, theses etc

3 Option C—Political Science

The ground covered was as follows —

(a) scope of political science its relation to social anthropology, social psychology, biology, (b) aim and methods in the study of political science, (c) theories of social contract—evaluation and analysis (d) objectivity and empiricism in the study of politics, research methods e.g. (i) historical method, (ii) comparative method, (iii) experimental method, (e) detailed study of the techniques of research in political science, collection and interpretation of data, preparation of materials, organisation of the manuscript from table of contents of bibliography

4 Option D—History

The ground covered included the following topics —

(a) meaning and nature of history, (b) history of historical writing with special reference to Herodotus, Ibn Khaldun, Edward Gibbon, Lord Acton, Arnold Toynbee, Namier and Barracough (c) historical criticism and judgment, (d) detailed study of the techniques of historical research, general instructions, choice of a subject collecting the data, note taking the outline, writing the thesis or the paper, specimen citations bibliography

5 Option E—Geography

This covered the following topics —

(a) *Problems of field study* definition of the problems, devising a suitable technique for their study, observation and recording of the different features of the problem in the field, (b) *compilation of data* data from field study and from official, semi-official and other sources, their comparability and conversion into a form amenable to plotting on maps, (c) *cartographical representation of data* materials and techniques of map making, representation of data in physical geography, economic maps, and diagrams, population maps and diagrams, maps and diagrams of settlements, (d) analysis of correlation of prepared maps, (e) synthesis of maps, definition of regions

Besides the above paper I, a student had to offer one of the groups A, B, C, or D

Group A—Sociology of Africa

Paper II Types, structure and functions of African society

Paper III Study of the sociology of a particular region of Africa

Group B—Economic developments in Africa

Paper II Structure and problems of economic developments in Africa (a) economic analysis, (b) system of land revenue, (c) agriculture, (d) population trends and economic developments (e) transport and communications, (f) labour and labour policies, (g) public finance, money and banking (h) the social services

Paper III Study of the economics of a particular region in Africa This paper was devoted to the economic development of either the Gold Coast, Nigeria or Sierra Leone and the Gambia

Group C—Government and politics in Africa

Paper II Theory and problems of government and politics in Africa It covered (a) concept of empire and imperialism, (b) comparative colonial politics, (c) political map of Africa, (d) principles of colonial government, (e) theory and practice of indirect rule, (f) inter territorial organisations, (g) international control of African dependencies, (h) problems of parliamentary government in African dependencies

Paper III Study of government and politics of a particular region in Africa

Group D—History of Africa

Paper II History of Africa 1785 upto date

- (a) West Africa
- (b) Southern Africa
- (c) Central Africa
- (d) Eastern Africa

Paper III Study of the History of a particular region of Africa

Either (1) the Gold Coast from 1874 to the present day or African history (Nigeria) from 1874 to the present day or (3) Sierra Leone and the Gambia from 1808 to the present day or (4) the Union of South Africa and the High Commission territories from 1902 to the present day or (5) Eastern Africa from 1900 to the present day

Paper IV The examination in this paper was conducted in one of the two ways

(a) a written examination on a subject which was chosen out of several coming within the scope of the subject matter of papers II and III previously studied by the candidate

(b) a short dissertation on a subject previously selected in consultation with his supervisor and with the approval of the head of the department or a problem hearing on his main subjects of study in paper II and III

The M A course in African studies has been discontinued. There were however 16 scholars in India in 1964-65 doing their Ph D in African studies

Study of Political Science in Relation to Many Countries Not Adequate

Reference has been made to the M A degrees in 'Ancient Indian and Asian studies' of the Magadh University and M A in 'African studies' at the Delhi University. The Magadh University is a new one. The course of studies for African studies given in the preceding pages was being undertaken several years back and it has been included here to impress that some of our universities were alive to the need of teaching in detail about countries, whose geographical proximity and political bearings made them sufficiently important for India.

But the criticism remains that by and large, we are concentrating on a few bigger countries and neglecting, so to say, some smaller countries, discounting thereby their political potentialities in world politics. India has now a place in her own right on the political map of the world. India is no longer a colony of the British Empire and Indian politics is now no more a handmaid of the British politics. Under the circumstances, just as we have a cell for every country in the external affairs ministry of the union government, we should divide the various countries into groups and allocate one group to one university for intensive study and research. Instead of overlapping we should demarcate the political areas of the world and let one or more university specialise in that area. Bigger countries could be allotted to three or more universities like Delhi, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Lucknow, Allahabad, Andhra, Kerala, Punjab and smaller areas to such universities as could not finance a larger and more qualified staff. This is just a suggestion for whatever it may be worth.

Teaching in Universities

The University Grants Commission appointed a number of review committees. One of the committees was to assess the teaching of political science in the Indian universities. The members of the Committee were (1) Prof U K N Menon, Director Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi (2) Dr A Appadorai, Director Indian School of International Studies, New Delhi (3) Dr F. Asirvatham, Professor of Political Science, Jabalpur University, Jabalpur (4) Professor N R Deshpande, Professor of Political Science, Nagpur, University Nagpur (5) Dr P J Philip, Joint Secretary, University Grants Commission, New Delhi

The committee held a number of meetings, and also visited the universities at Allahabad, Bombay, Jabalpur, Lucknow, Punjab and Poona and had the benefit of discussing the matter with a number of teachers and students. The committee has submitted its report, but attempts have not been adequate to modify the syllabi in the light of changing social and economic setting in the country and most of the Indian universities have still been clinging to the old courses, which are more theoretical than having an air of realism in the context of the political and economic conditions in the country.

Departments of Political Science

It would be of interest to give an idea of the departments of political sciences set up at various Indian universities after 1956. Most of the universities teach political science both in B A and M A classes and were doing so even before 1956. The new universities set up after 1956, have also invariably provided for teaching political science. But some particulars of expansion, in this respect, in some universities are being furnished to give an idea of lines, on which expansion is taking place.

At the M S University of Baroda, the department of political science has been expanded and elevated and also conducts postgraduate teaching and research work. The department now offers specialisation in (i) political theory and (ii) politics and administration of Indian villages. The Jadavpur university set up a department of international relations in 1956. For details in regard to course of studies prescribed for the various degrees and examination reference is invited to chapter XXI. The Karnatak University also set up a department for teaching in political science in 1956. The Kerala University did so in 1957. The department specialises in comparative political systems and public administration. It has also organised two seminars.

The years in which some of the other universities set up separate departments for political science are noted below —

The University of Bihar (1957), Gorakhpur (1958), Gauhati (1958), Rajasthan (1961), Jndhpur (1962), Maratbwada (1962),

Magadh (1963) The position, before separate departments were set up was that the teaching in politics had a subsidiary status and one or more papers on political science subjects found place under history, economics, etc. The teaching of political science as an independent intellectual discipline is being now carried on at 36 universities Aligarh, Allahabad, Andhra, Annamalai, Banaras, Baroda, Bhagalpur, Bihar, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Gauhati, Gorakhpur, Gujarat, Jabalpur, Jadavpur, Karnatak, Kerala, Kurukshetra, Lucknow, Madras, Magadh, Marathwada, Mysore, Nagpur, North Bengal, Osmania, Panjab, Patna, Poona, Rajasthan, Ranchi, Sardar Patel, Saugar and Utkal

Besides political science being taught in B A and M A some universities conduct diploma and certificate courses also

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1 | Diploma course in public administration | Universities of Madras, Osmania, Aligarh and Patna |
| 2 | Diploma course in public administration and foreign Affairs | Lucknow University |
| 3 | Diploma in foreign affairs | Aligarh „ |
| 4 | Diploma in international relations | Patna „ |
| 5 | Diploma in local self-Government | Nagpur „ |
| 6 | Certificate course in public administration | Karnatak „ |
| 7 | Certificate course in local self government | Allahabad „ |

Number of Colleges & Students

During 1963-64, 69 affiliated colleges were teaching political science in postgraduate classes as per details given below

Agra	29	Poona	1
Bombay	5	Panjab	1
Jabalpur	2	Rajasthan	6
Kerala	2	Saugor	7
Madras	2	Shivaji	1
Nagpur	1	S N D T	1
Panjab	6	Vikram	5

The following table shows year-wise the increase in the number of M A students and research scholars in political science

Year	M.A.			RESEARCH SCHOLARS		
	University departments	Affiliated Colleges	Total	University Dep	Affit Colleges	Total
1961-62	—	—	4784	—	—	243
1962-63	3043	1970	5013	234	23	257
1963-64	3152	2042	5194	209	22	231
1964-65	3334	2232	5563	267	26	293

Research in Political Science

The numbers of theses accepted for the award of Doctorate degree in political science from 1955-56 to 1962-63 are given below. That would furnish a general idea of the research work being done at the various universities. We would have liked to give titles of the topics, on which, research studies were made. But as we are dealing in this part with a number of branches of social science, it is not possible to give titles of doctoral dissertations in political science.

Agra	45	Gujarat	1	Poona	2
Aligarh	14	Lucknow	27	Panjah	4
Allabahad	13	Madras	3	Patna	2
Banaras	2	Baroda	2	Rajasthan	4
Bombay	13	Mysore	1	Saugor	25
Calcutta	4	Nagpur	1	Venkateshwar	2
Delhi	18	Osmania	1	Utkal	1
		Indian School of I. N. Studies	2		

Number of These Accepted For the Award of Doctorate Degrees. 1960-61 to 1963-64

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
Law	—	1	1	1
History	15	20	26	35
Political Science	28	28	30	18
International Relations	—	—	—	2
Public Administration	—	—	—	1
Total	43	49	65	57

Teaching in B A Classes

We are dealing with M A courses rather in detail but it is necessary to give an idea of the course of studies prescribed for B A. The syllabi of different universities differ, so also the schemes of compulsory and optional papers. We shall give below the names of compulsory and optional papers prescribed by some of the universities and that would give an integrated idea of the pattern of courses.

The Andhra University provides for four compulsory papers (1) political theory, (2) modern government, (3) contemporary political doctrines and the government of modern States (4) public administration.

The Annamalai University provides for two compulsory papers (1) political theory including a text, (2) the evolution of government. In addition to these a candidate has to offer two out of the four following papers (1) modern governments, (2) State and government in ancient India, (3) interrelations and diplomacy, (4) the constitutional and administrative history of India.

The Banaras Hindu university prescribes the following six compulsory papers (1) principles of political science, (2) the growth of the Indian constitution, (3) political ideals and modern political theories, (4) unitary constitutions (5) history of the Indian national movement, (6) federal constitution.

The Madras university has the following compulsory papers (1) political theory, including the prescribed text, (2) the evolution of the government. Besides the above, a candidate has to offer any two of the following papers (1) modern government, (2) elements of public administration, (3) State and government in ancient India, (4) international relations and diplomacy (5) the constitutional development and administration of modern India from 1600 A D.

B A (Hons) courses generally provide for 8 papers. The papers, a student has to appear at Calcutta, Delhi, Jadavpur, Kurukshetra, are given to give a general idea.

Calcutta University

- (i) political theory,
- (ii) modern governments other than government of India U K, U S A, U S S R, Switzerland and Japan,
- (iii) government of India including local government and civil service,
- (iv) elements of sociology—theory of institutions,
- (v) international relations,
- (vi) public economics,
- (vii) special texts

(a) Aristotle : Politics,

(b) Mill : Considerations on representative government,

(viii) Essay.

Delhi University :

(i) ancient political thought,

(ii) political theory.

(iii) comparative government U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R. and Switzerland,

(iv) the constitution of India,

(v) local self-governments in India and Assam,

(vi) state and government in ancient India,

(vii) international relations from 1918-1939,

(viii) elements of public administration.

Jadavpur University :

(i) theory of the State.

(ii) modern constitutions: (a) first half—constitutions of U.K., U.S.A., U.S.S.R., (b) second half—Indian constitution.

(iii) public economics and modern economic development (with special reference to India or an outline history of political thought,

(iv) elements of sociology,

(v) the British empire and commonwealth (1714-1939),

(vi) political and diplomatic history of Europe (1815-1914),

(vii) political and constitutional history of India (1757-1947).

(viii) an elementary course in one of the following languages :
(i) Chinese, (ii) Japanese, (iii) Russian, (iv) French.

Kurukshetra University :

(i) constitutional history of India since 1858,

(ii) modern governments (India, Britain, U.S.A. and U.S.S.R.) ,

(iii) theory of State,

(iv) outlines of western political thought from Plato to the renaissance,

(v) outlines of western political thought from Machiavelli to Herbert Spencer,

(vi) constitutional history of England from 1688 to the present,

(vii) international relations 1871-1920,

(viii) principles of public administration.

The details of course of study prescribed for B.A. in political science by the University of Kerala, are being given below to provide a detailed picture of what is being taught in the subject by the Indian universities

There are six papers for those who offer political science as the main subject. But under Pattern II, where political science is offered as one of the optional subjects, there are four papers (I, II and IV as for the main subject, but paper III is different and its particulars are given below as 'paper III—under Pattern II')

The above would convey a general idea about the subject matter of what is being taught to political science students in B.A. and B.A. (Hons) classes

University of Kerala
Group (ii)—Politics for B.A.

Paper I—Principles of Political Science

(i) Nature of Political Science—Its scope and method—Divisions of Political Science, Political Theory, Political Thought, Comparative Government, Public Law, Public Administration, International Relations—Its relation to History, Jurisprudence, Economics, Sociology, Psychology, Ethics and Geography (ii) The State—Its attributes—The State distinguished from other associations—Nation and Nationality—The nature of the State—The Organic Theory. (iii) The origin of the State—Deductive theories—Social Contract Theory according to Hobbes, Locke and Rousseau the theory of Divine Origin—Inductive theories—the Patriarchal theory, the Matriarchal theory and the Force theory—The Historical or Revolutionary theory (iv) Sovereignty—Attributes of Sovereignty—The Austinian theory of sovereignty—Legal and Political Sovereignty—De Facto and De Jure Sovereignty—Actual and Titular Sovereignty—Popular Sovereignty—The monistic, Pluralistic and Internationalist views of Sovereignty in the Federal State—Present day reaction against the classical conception of Sovereignty (v) Law, Liberty, Equality, Rights and Duties (vi) The State as an end in itself and as a means to an end—The State as a superhuman entity—Political obligation. (vii) The sphere of the State—Laissez faire—Increased State activity—The Socialistic view—State Socialism—Other Schools of Socialism, Communism, Guild Socialism, Syndicalism, Totalitarianism, Fascism and Nazism, Peoples' Democracy—Modern Democracy, The Secular State—The Welfare State—Sarvodaya (viii) Constitutions—Classification of Constitutions—written and unwritten, Rigid and Flexible, Federal and Unitary—Means of Constitutional change, Normal amendment, Judicial Interpretation Usage and Convention (ix) The Theory of separation of Powers—Its applications—The Executive—Nominal and Real—Plural and Single—Parliamentary and Presidential. (x) The Legislature—Unicameral and Bicameral (xi) Elections—Direct and Indirect—Minority representation—Proportional representation—Direct Democracy—the initiative, the referendum, the Plebiscite and recall (xii) Political Parties—One party, two party and multi-party systems—Pressure groups and interest

groups—Public Opinion (xiii) The roll of the Judiciary, Judicial Review, the Rule of Law and Droit Administratif

Books for Study

- 1 Appadorai—*Substance of Politics* 2 Gettell—*Political Science*.
- 3 Joad—*Modern Political Theory* 4 Garner—*Political Science and Government* 5 Roy, Dasgupta and Ray—*Principles of Political Science* (Macmillan & Co)

Books for reference —

- 1 Laski—*A Grammar of Politics* 2 Wilson—*Elements of Modern Politics* 3 Kapur—*Principles of Political Science* 4 Soltau—*An Introduction to Politics* 5 Wheare—*Modern Constitutions*
- 6 Friedrich—*Constitutional Government and Democracy* 7 Strong—*Modern Political Constitution*

Paper II—Political Thought

(i) Ancient Political Thought—Contributions of Plato and Aristotle—Contributions of Roman political thinkers (ii) Ancient Indian Political Thought—Theory of the State and forms and functions of government as conceived by the ancient Hindus (iii) Political ideas of Thomas Aquinas, Dante, Machiavelli, Bodin and Grotius (iv) The Social Contract—Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, Montesquieu (v) The theory of the American and French Revolutions (vi) Hume, Burke and the Utilitarians (vii) Hegel Green and Bosanquet (viii) The Anarchists (ix) Marx and Lenin (x) Fascism, Nazism and Racism (xi) Political Pluralism (xii) Recent Indian Political Thought—Tilak and Gandhi

Books for Study

- 1 Philip Deyle—*History of Political Thought* 2. C L Wayper—*Political Thought*

Books for reference

- 1 Sabine—*History of Political Theory* 2 Dunning—*History of Political Theories* 3 Coker—*Recent Political Thought* 4 Ghoshal—*Hindu Political Theories* 5 B Prasad—*The State in Ancient India* 6 D M Brown—*The White Umbrella* 7 Ebenstein—*Political Thought in Prospective*

Paper III—Foreign Governments

Detailed study of the Governments of U K, France, Switzerland, U S S R, U S A, and Japan

(i) U K Salient features of the development of the British Constitution—The Cabinet system of government—The role of the Prime Minister—The role of the monarchy—The party system—The House of Commons and the House of Lords—The

Civil Service—The Rule of Law and Administration of Justice and Local Government

(ii) *France* The Government of France under the third and fourth republics—Ministerial instability under the third and fourth republics—The Constitution of the Fifth republic—The Presidency under the Fifth Republic—The Cabinet and the National Assembly under the Fifth Republic—Political parties and pressure groups—Troik Administratif—The French Civil Service—Local government

(iii) *Switzerland* The salient features of the Constitution of Switzerland—The collegiate executive—Swiss Federalism—Direct Legislation—Amendments to the Constitution

(iv) *U S S R* The revolution of 1917—The Constitution of 1936—Presidium and the Supreme Soviet Administration of Justice—Soviet Federalism—The role of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union

(v) *Japan* Main characteristics of the Meiji Constitution—Basic features of the 1947 Constitution—The Emperor—The Prime Minister and the Cabinet—The Diet—Political parties—The Civil Service—Local Government

(vi) *U S A* The Presidency—The Congress and the Supreme Court—The Bill of Rights—Federal State Relations—Political parties and pressure groups—Amendments to the Constitution

Books for Reference —

1 Strong *Modern Constitutions* 2 Ogg and Ray *Essentials of America* 3 Dorothy Pickle *The V Republic* 4 Finer *Government of Modern Europe* 5 Yanaga *Japanese People and Politics*

Paper IV—International Relations

I *Nature of International Relations*

1 Definition and scope 2 Development as a discipline 3 International Relations and International Politics 4 Relationship with other social sciences, Economics, International Law, Geography, Sociology and Psychology 5 Balance of Power 6 Objectives in the study of International Relations

II *Basic concepts in the study of International Relations*

1 Nation States nationalism and sovereignty 2 Imperialism and colonialism 3 National Power 4 National interest 5 Collective security and peaceful settlement of disputes

III *Conduct of International Relations*

1 International Politics 2 Diplomacy 3 War 4 Conduct of foreign relations 5 International Law 6 International

Economics 7 International Communications 8 International and regional organisations

IV *History of International Relations since 1919*

Study of the major developments and movements in world politics since 1919

V *Foreign Politics of Major Powers since 1945*

U S A , U S S R , Great Britain, France, China, India

VI *The United Nations*

- 1 Origins 2 Principal organs including specialised agencies
- 3 Maintenance of International peace and security 4 Promotion of International co operation 5 Achievements and failures 6 Revision of the charter

Book for study E H Carr—*International Relations Between Two World Wars*

Books for reference 1 Palmer and Perkins—*International Relations*
2 F H Hartman—*The Relations of Nations* Macmillan, New York 1960
3 Quincy Wright—*The Study of International Relations* (Appleton Century Crofts New York, 1955)

Paper V—Indian Government

The Government of India Act of 1919—The Central Executive, the Legislature—Working of dyarchy in the provinces—The struggle for Indian independence—The Government of India Act, 1935—The federal provisions of the Act—Working of provincial autonomy under the Act The Cripps proposals and the Cabinet Mission Plan—The Indian Independence Act of 1947—The accession of the princely States and formation of new States

The Constitution and the Government of the Republic of India—with special reference to the following —

- (a) The preamble, fundamental rights and directive principles
- (b) Citizenship (c) The Presidency (d) The Vice President (e) The Prime Minister and the Council of Ministers—Cabinet government in India (f) The Union Parliament—The Rajya Sabha and Lok Sabha—The Committee system in the Indian Parliament—Privileges of Parliament—The role of the Speaker—Parties in Parliament (g) The Supreme Court and Judicial Review (h) The role of State Governors—The Cabinet system of Government in the State The State Legislatures—State Reorganisation (i) Administrative set up of Union territories (j) Federal—State relations in India—The distribution of powers in the Constitution—Administrative relations between the Centre and the States—The Planning Commission—Emergency powers of the President of India (k) Amendment of the constitution (l) Political parties—Interest and pressure groups (m) The Civil Service—The Public Service Commissions (n) Financial administration—Parliamentary Control—The Comptroller and Auditor General of India. (o) Electoral system—The Election Commission (p)

Special provisions relating to minorities, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, backward classes etc

Books for Prescribed

- 1 M P Sharma—*The Government of the Indian Republic*
- 2 Norman O Palmer—*The Indian Political System* (Allen & Unwin 1963)

Books for Reference

M V Pylee—*Constitutional Government in India*

Paper VI—Public Administration

Nature and scope of Public Administration—Its relation to other social sciences—Differences between Public and Private Administration The Chief Executive and his functions—Organisation, line staff and auxiliary agencies—The Department—Organisation of Departments with special reference to India—Organisational set up of the Ministries of Home Finance External Affairs and Defence of the Government of India—Public Corporations—Independent regulatory commissions—Administration of India—Organisation and methods—Planning, Powers and functions of the Planning Commission in India

Public Personnel Administration—Bureaucracy Its merits and defects—The Civil Service in India Recruitment and Training Discipline and Morale—The Union Public Service Commission

Financial Administration with special reference to India—Preparation of the Budget and Execution of the Budget

Administrative Law—Delegated Legislation

Local Administration—District Administration

Municipalities and Panchayats with special reference to Kerala

Books for Study

- | | | |
|---------|---|--------------|
| 1 White | <i>Elements of Public Administration</i> | 2 M P Sharma |
| | <i>Public Administration in Theory and Practice</i> | 3 M P Sharma |
| | <i>Local Government in India</i> | |

Books for Reference

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|---|-----------|------------------------------|
| 1 Ruthnaswamy | <i>Public Administration</i> | 2 Gladden | <i>Public Administration</i> |
| 3 V K Sukumaran Nayar (Ed) | <i>Municipal Administration in Kerala</i> | | |

Paper III—Under Pattern II

POLITICAL ORGANISATION

Part I—Comparative Government

(i) Students are expected to have a detailed knowledge of the Constitution of India with special reference to the historical

background from the passing of the Government of India Act of 1919 (ii) In addition to this they are expected to study the Constitutions of the United Kingdom U S A, France, U S S R and Switzerland (iii) In the study of the Constitutions special reference should be made to

- 1 The mode of amendment
- 2 The guaranteed rights of the citizen
- 3 The social ideals of the Constitution
- 4 The composition and functions of the Executive
- 5 The organisation and powers of the Legislature
- 6 The procedure and methods of business of the Legislature
- 7 The Franchise and Electoral system, Minority representation
- 8 Political Parties—The role of the opposition parties—Interest and pressure groups
- 9 Administration and the Public Services including methods of recruitment and control
- 10 The composition and functions of the Judiciary
- 11 The distribution of powers between the Centre and the Units in federal governments

Part II—International Relations

(i) The Study of International Relations—National Power—Elements of National Power—Geography, Natural resources, Population, Technology, Ideology, Morale, Leadership—Nationalism—Diplomacy and War as instruments of national Policy—The Balance of Power—International Law—Its role in the modern world

(ii) International Organisation—The League of Nations—The United Nations Organisation—Functions and Powers of the Security Council and the General Assembly—The Role of the Secretary General—Specialised agencies of the UN The International Court of Justice

(iii) Foreign Policies of India, The United States and the Soviet Union since 1945

Books for Study

- 1 M P Sharma *Government of the Indian Republic*
- 2 Carter, Ranney and Herz *Major Foreign Powers*
- 3 Marx (Ed) *Modern Foreign Governments*
- 4 Ogg and Ray *Introduction to American Government*
- 5 Vandenbolsch and Hogan *The United Nations*

Books for Reference

- 1 Ogg and Zink *Modern Foreign Governments*
- 2 Munro *Governments of Europe*
- 3 Gledhill *The Constitution of the Republic of India*
- 4 Pylee *Constitutional Government in India*
- 5 Basu *Introduction to the Constitution of India*
- 6 Palmer and Perkins *International Relations*
7. Strong *Modern Political Constitutions*

M A in Political Science

Now we are giving an outline of syllabus for M A in political science in two universities which would give a closer idea of the various subjects and topics taught to M A students

The Allahabad University provides a two year course for M A in political science. There are four written papers and viva voce test in M V (previous). Paper I—either (a) ancient and mediaeval political theory or (b) contemporary political thought. Paper II—modern political theory. Paper III—either (a) ancient and mediaeval political institutions or (b) a detailed study of the constitution of Britain. Paper IV—modern constitutions: Australia, the United States of America, Japan (new constitution), Sweden, the U S S R, France, (new constitution) and West Germany. In M A final examination there are five written papers. Papers I and II are compulsory, besides these, each candidate has to offer any one of the groups A-F.

Paper I—Essay. Paper II—either *international relations* (1870 to the present day) (for those candidates who do not offer group D) or *principles of public administration* with special reference to India (for those candidates only who do not offer group D) or *international law* (for those who do not offer group D)—same as paper XIV.

Now are being given particulars of groups A, B, C, D, E and F, which are being taught at the Allahabad University—each group covers three papers.

Group A Paper III Ancient Indian political thought and institutions. Paper IV—Ancient Indian social philosophy. Paper V—Modern Indian social and political thought from Raja Ram Mohan Roy to the present day.

Those who do not offer group A may offer one of the following groups—

Group B Paper VI Islamic political thought and policy till 1258. Paper VII Islamic political thought and policy after 1258. Paper VIII Islamic law and jurisprudence.

Group C The third option to students of political science is to offer group C (in place of A, B, D, E, or F groups). This also consists of three papers. Paper IX Social anthropology. Paper X Social psychology. Paper XI Social philosophy.

Group D The fourth optional group D also consists of three papers. Paper XII International affairs 1815-1919 (with special emphasis on the period 1877-1919). Paper XIII Contemporary international affairs 1949 to the present day. Paper XIV International law.

Group E Paper XV Principles of public administration. Paper XVI Administration system of India. Paper XVII Local self-government in India (with special reference to U P, England, the U S A).

background from the passing of the Government of India Act of 1919 (ii) In addition to this they are expected to study the Constitutions of the United Kingdom U S A , France, U S S R and Switzerland (iii) In the study of the Constitutions special reference should be made to

- 1 The mode of amendment
- 2 The guaranteed rights of the citizen
- 3 The social ideals of the Constitution
- 4 The composition and functions of the Executive
- 5 The organisation and powers of the Legislature
- 6 The procedure and methods of business of the Legislature
- 7 The Franchise and Electoral system, Minority representation
- 8 Political Parties—The role of the opposition parties—Interest and pressure groups
- 9 Administration and the Public Services including methods of recruitment and control
- 10 The composition and functions of the Judiciary
- 11 The distribution of powers between the Centre and the Units in federal governments

Part II—International Relations

(i) The Study of International Relations—National Power—Elements of National Power—Geography, Natural resources, Population, Technology, Ideology, Morale, Leadership—Nationalism—Diplomacy and War as instruments of national Policy—The Balance of Power—International Law—Its role in the modern world

(ii) International Organisation—The League of Nations—The United Nations Organisation—Functions and Powers of the Security Council and the General Assembly—The Role of the Secretary General—Specialised agencies of the UN The International Court of Justice

(iii) Foreign Policies of India, The United States and the Soviet Union since 1945

Books for Study

- 1 MP Sharma *Government of the Indian Republic*
- 2 Carter, Ranney and Herz *Major Foreign Powers*
- 3 Marx (Ed) *Modern Foreign Governments*
- 4 Ogg and Ray *Introduction to American Government*
- 5 Vandenbolsch and Hogan *The United Nations*

Books for Reference

- 1 Ogg and Zink *Modern Foreign Governments*
- 2 Munro *Governments of Europe*
- 3 Gledhill *The Constitution of the Republic of India*
- 4 Pylee *Constitutional Government in India*
- 5 Basu *Introduction to the Constitution of India*
- 6 Palmer and Perkins *International Relations*
- 7 Strong *Modern Political Constitutions*

M A in Political Science

Now we are giving an outline of syllabus for M A in political science in two universities which would give a closer idea of the various subjects and topics taught to M A students

The Allahabad University provides a two year course for M A in political science. There are four written papers and viva voce test in M V (previous). Paper I—either (a) ancient and mediaeval political theory or (b) contemporary political thought. Paper II—modern political theory. Paper III—either (a) ancient and mediaeval political institutions or (b) a detailed study of the constitution of Britain. Paper IV—modern constitutions Australia, the United States of America, Japan (new constitution) Sweden, the U S S R, France, (new constitution) and West Germany. In M A final examination there are five written papers. Papers I and II are compulsory, besides these, each candidate has to offer any one of the groups A-F.

Paper I—Essay. Paper II—either *international relations* (1870 to the present day) (for those candidates who do not offer group D) or *principles of public administration* with special reference to India (for those candidates only who do not offer group D) or *international law* (for those who do not offer group D)—same as paper XIV).

Now are being given particulars of groups A, B, C, D, E and F, which are being taught at the Allahabad University—each group covers three papers.

Group A Paper III Ancient Indian political thought and institutions. Paper IV—Ancient Indian social philosophy. Paper V—Modern Indian social and political thought from Raja Ram Mohan Roy to the present day.

Those who do not offer group A may offer one of the following groups —

Group B Paper VI Islamic political thought and policy till 1258. Paper VII Islamic political thought and policy after 1258. Paper VIII Islamic law and jurisprudence.

Group C The third option to students of political science is to offer group C (in place of A, B, D, E, or F groups). This also consists of three papers. Paper IX Social anthropology. Paper X Social psychology. Paper XI Social philosophy.

Group D The fourth optional group D also consists of three papers. Paper XII International affairs 1815-1919 (with special emphasis on the period 1877-1919). Paper XIII Contemporary international affairs 1949 to the present day. Paper XIV International law.

Group E Paper XV Principles of public administration. XVI Administration system of India. Paper XVII Local self-government in India (with special reference to U P, England, the U S A).

Ghosh Treaties and Federal Constitutions their Mutual Impact

Kennedy Constitutional Development of Canada

Codding The Federal Government of Switzerland

Powie and Friedrich Studies in Federalism

Paper IV

Constitutional Law of Britain and India

Dicey The Law of the Constitution

Wheare Modern Constitutions

Wade and Phillips Constitutional Law

Hood Phillips The Constitutional Law of Great Britain and the Commonwealth

Keir and Lawson Cases in Constitutional Law

Fenn The Development of the Constitution

Jennings Law and the Constitution

Sen Problem of Minorities

The Constitution of India

Cooley General Principles of Constitutional Law in the United States of America

The Crown Proceedings Act, 1947.

The British Nationality Act, 1948

The India (Consequential) Provisions Act, 1949

Sen From Raj to Swaraj

Basu Cases on the Constitution of India, Vols I and II

Basu, D A Commentary on the Constitution of India

Banerjee, D N Our Fundamental Rights

Harveyarwood The British State

Paper V

Public Administration (with special reference to India and Britain, and including Public Corporations)

Robson Nationalised Industries and Public Ownership

Robson Justice and Administrative Law

Robson Civil Service in Britain and France

Roy Separation of Executive and Judicial Powers in British India

Roy The Civil Service in India

Kagzi Indian Administrative Law

Finer The Theory and Practice of Modern Government

Report of the Menon Committee on Public Enterprise

D N Chester Organisation of the British Central Government

The Bengal Administrative Enquiry Committee's Report, 1944-45

Beer Treasury Control

Canada Indian Administration, Aspects of Audit Control

The Organisation of the Government of India (The Indian Institute of Public Administration)

Mukherjee Community Development in India

De Panchayat Raj

Gladden Civil Service or Bureaucracy

Gladden Introduction to Public Administration

Gladden Essentials of Public Administration

White Civil Service in the Modern State

Griffith and Street Principles of Administrative Law

Hanson Parliament and Public Ownership

Appleby Public Administration for a Welfare State

Ghosbal Civil Service in India

Robson Governors and the Governed

Lord Bridges The Treasury

H K Paranjpy The Planning Commission

Paper VI

Public International Law

Fenwick International Law

Oppenheim International Law 2 Vols

Cobbett Cases on International Law 2 Vols

Brierly The Outlook for International Law.

Hambro and Goodrich Charter of the United Nations
(Commentary and Documents)

For reference—

S K Mukherjee A New Outlook for International Law

S K Chatterjee National Sovereignty and World Order

Hall International Law

J Stone Legal Control of International Conflicts

Ross A Text Book of International Law

Garner International Law and the World War, Prize Law
during the World War

Jessup A Modern Law of Nations

Lauterpacht The Function of Law in the International
Community

Lauterpacht Recognition in International Law

Year Book of World Affairs

Kelsen The Law of the United Nations

- Cheever and Haviland Organizing for Peace
 Bloomfield Evolution or Revolution ?
 Briggs The Cases in International Law Documents and Notes
 Wilcox and Marcy Proposals for Changes in the United Nations
 Martin and Edwards The Changing Charter A Study in the Reform of the United Nations
 Raghubir Chakrabarti Human Rights

Special Papers VII & VIII

Any one of the following subjects —

- (i) *Ancient and Medieval Political Theories and Institutions (including Hindu and Muslim Political Theories in India)*

Warde Fowler The City State of the Greeks and Romans
 Greenidge Greek Constitution, Roman Public Life
 Sidgwick The Development of European Polity
 Dunning A History of Political Theories, Vol. I
 Prasad The State in Ancient India
 Jayaswal Hindu Polity
 Ghoshal A History of Indian Political Ideas
 Qureshi Administrative System under the Sultanate
 Sarkar Mughal Administration
 Dasgupta A Study in Hindu and European Political System
 Sarkar Political Institutions and Theories of the Hindus
 Majumdar Corporate Life in Ancient India
 Banerjee Public Administration in Ancient India.
 Mookerjee Local Government in Ancient India
 Sastri History of the Cholas (Administration)
 Kautilya Arthashastra (Eng. Tra.)
 N. Banerjee Kautilya
 Plato Laws

- (ii) *Sociology (including Social Psychology, Applied Sociology and Social Anthropology)*

India and Page Society
 Roy T. Becker Systematic Sociology
 Kagzi Initial Psychology
 Finer Thana Katba (in Bengali)
 Report of thees and Towns as Social Patterns
 D. N. Chester ology
 ment velopment of Sociology

Barnes An Introduction to the History of Sociology

Ogburn Social Change

T B Boltomore Sociology

Davies Human Society

B Dattagupta Contemporary Social Problems

Lowie Social Organisation

Lowie Cultural Anthropology

Guha Racial Affinities of the People of India

Martindale Nature and Types of Sociological Theories

Timashiff Sociological Theory Its Nature and Growth

Rosenquist Social Problem

Reports Public Health Administration in Bengal and India,

Union Boards (Local Self Government), Administration of

Jails in Bengal and the rest of India, Calcutta Corporation

For reference—

Sorokin Social Mobility

Sen City of Calcutta Social and Economic Survey

Goode and Hatt Methods of Social Research

Ginsberg Studies in Sociology

Tagore Samaj (in Bengali)

Mukherjee, B Samajik Pravandha (in Bengali)

Chatterjee S Jati Sanskriti o Sahitya (in Bengali)

Gurvitch Twentieth Century Sociology

Sorokin Contemporary Sociological Theories

Sociological Review (London), American Sociological Review,

American Journal of Sociology and British Journal of Sociology

Sri Aurobindo. Human Cycle, Foundations of Indian Cul-

ture

Chandrasekhar Hungry People and Empty Lands

Bose Nabin and Prachin

Bose Hindu Samaj Gathan

Census Reports for Bengal, 1901 and 1911 (Races, Castes and

Occupations)

Census Reports for India 1931 and 1951 (Public Health and

Vital Statistics)

Anthropological Papers (Calcutta University)

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social

Science, Criminological Volume, 1959

Desai Rural India, in Transition

T H Marshall Sociology at the Cross Roads

Turner India's Urban Future

Dr Radhakamal Mukherjee Social Function of Art

- Sethna Society and the Criminal
 Kapadia Marriage and Family in India
 Sen From Punishment to Reformation
 Nihar Ray Bangali Jatir Itihas
 Dev Our Countrymen Overseas
 Riesman Lonely Crowd
 Ghurye Family and Kin in Indo European Culture
 Mukherjee, R The Changing Face of Bengal
 Sarkar Sociology of Races Cultures and Human Progress
 Ghurye Caste, Race and Class in India
 Hogbin Social Change
 Gistand Fava Urban Society (1954)
 Kumarappa B Villagism
 Sarat Ch Ray The Mundas and their Country
 Sarat Ch Ray The Oraons
 Gurdon The Khasis
 Tribes and Castes in West Bengal (Census of India, 1951)
 Daniel Lerner The Passing of Traditional Society

(iii) *International Relations from 1815 to the present day (including Theories of International Relations)*

- Mowat A History of European Diplomacy 2 Vols.
 Webster Congress of Vienna
 Sharp and Kirk Contemporary International Politics
 Carr International Relations between Two World Wars
 Cook and Steiger Readings in International Relations
 Beatrich and Martin A Commentary on the Charter of the United Nations
 Hartmann Relations of Nations
 Schuman International Politics
 Baillie Diplomatic History of the American People
 Morgenthau Politics among Nations
 Hoffman Contemporary Theory in International Relations
 Hill History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe Vols II and III

For reference —

- Morton A Kaplan The Revolution in World Politics (Edited)
 Chakraborty India China Relations
 J K Banerjee The Middle East in World Politics
 Hardy A Short History of International Affairs
 Potter International Organisation

- H L Moore Soviet Far Eastern Policy, 1931-45
 Hyamson A Dictionary of International Affairs
 Toynbee Survey of International Affairs
 Zimmern The League of Nations and the Rule of Law
 The Treaty of Versailles
 Satow A Guide to Diplomatic Practice
 Hupe and Possony International Relations
 Hartmann Basic Documents on International Relations
 Keith Speeches and Documents on International Affairs, 1918-1937, Vols I and II
 Vinacke A History of the Far East in Modern Times
 George Lenczowski The Middle East in World Affairs
 E H Carr German Soviet Relations between the two World Wars (1919-1939)
 Vandyke International Politics
 Wright International Relations
 Grant and Temperley Europe in 19th and 20th century
 Webster Diplomacy Past and Present
 Sri Aurobindo War and Self determination
 Rene Albrecht-Carric A Diplomatic History of Europe since the Congress of Vienna
 (iv) *Local Government in U K , France, U S A and India (particularly West Bengal)*
 Macdonald American City Government and Administration
 Zink Government of Cities in U S A
 Snider Local Government in Rural America
 Robson The Development of Local Government (in Britain)
 Roy Rural Self Government in Bengal
 Finer English Local Government
 Green Provincial Metropolis
 Calcutta Municipal Act
 Bengal Local Self Government Act
 Bengal Village Self Government Act , West Bengal Panchayat Act
 West Bengal Zilla Parishad Act
 De Panchayati Raj
 Calcutta Corporation Investigation Committee Reports (Biswas Report and Talukdar Report)
 Report of the Local Finance Enquiry Committee 1951
 Majumdar Problems of Public Administration
 Rao A Hundred Years of Local Government in Andhra and Madras

- Robson Government and Misgovernment of London
 Robson Great Cities of the World
 Jennings Principles of Local Government Law
 Warren The English Local Government System
 Chapman Local Government in France
 Chapman Prefects and Provincial France
 B Mukherji Community Development in India
- (v) *Constitutional Development of Japan (1867 to the present day) and Egypt (from 1914 to the present day)*
 Wakefield New Paths for Japan
 Japan and the United Nations (Report of a Study Team)
 Kitazawa Government of Japan
 Quigley Government and Politics of Japan
 Hishida Japan among the Great Powers
 Yanaga Japanese People and Politics
 Nitobe Japan (Modern World Series)
 Maki Government and Politics of Japan
 Japan, Its Land People and Culture (published by Japanese Government)
 Kahin Major Governments of Asia
 Europa Year Book, 1962, Vol II
 Stewart Young Egypt
 Toynbee A Survey in International Affairs Egypt
 Macmichael Sudan
 Ghosh Constitutional Development in Islamic World,
 Constitutional Documents of Major Islamic countries
- (vi) *Constitutional Development in India (1765 1947) and the U K (1688 to the present day)*
 Keith A Constitutional History of India
 Keith Documents on Indian Constitutional History
 Roy Constitutional System of India
 Menon Transfer of Power
 Coupland The Constitutional Problem of India
 Banerjee Cabinet Mission, Constitutional Documents
 A Report on Indian Constitutional Reforms (Montagu Chelmsford Report)
 Report of the Simon Commission, 2 Vols
 Constituent Assembly Debates
 Maitland Constitutional History of England
 Keith Constitutional History of Britain
 Keir Constitutional History of Modern Britain

Smellie Hundred Years of British Government
Jennings Cabinet Government

The list of books prescribed by the Calcutta University would indicate the extensive reading an M A in Politics is expected to do

M A. in Diplomacy and International Affairs

Besides M A in political science, the Allahabad University also provides for M A in diplomacy and international affairs. This course strictly speaking falls in the inter disciplinary area of political science and international relations. We are however giving its details in this chapter

There are four written papers in M A previous, besides viva voce test, and a student offering this course has to pass the qualifying test in one of the foreign languages (other than English). As this is a new course the names of the books recommended for each paper are also being given to indicate the nature and scope of studies

Paper I Political theory from Hobbes to the present day

Books recommended Hobbes *Leviathan* The *Second Treatise on Civil Government* (Locke), *Social Contract* (Rousseau) *Essays on Liberty and Representative Government* (Mill), *Lectures on Political Obligations* (Green), *The Philosophical Theory of the State* (Bosanquet), *The State in Theory and Practice* (Laski) *Studies in Political Philosophy* (Vaughan), *Political Theories*, Vol 2 and 3 (Dunning) *Political Theories* (Merriam Barnes and others), *Recent Political Thought* (Coker), *A History of Political Theory* (Sahne) *Contemporary Political Thought in England* (Rockow) *Readings in Recent Political Philosophy* (Sphar) *The Modern State* (McIver), *Social and Economic Doctrines* (Laidler)

Paper II Comparative study of constitutions—Great Britain, the United States of America, the U S S R, France, China, and Argentina

The Books recommend are

How Britain is Governed (Meir, Ramsay), *Parliamentary Government in England* (Laski), *Cabinet Government* (Jennings), *American Government and Politics* (Ceard) *The American Political System* (Brogan) *The Law of the Soviet State* (Vyshinsky) *Soviet Communism*, Vol 1 (Webb), *Political Power in the U S S R* (Towster), *Organic Law of the People's Republic of China* (State Publ) *The Constitution of the People's Republic of China* (State publ), *Foreign Governments* (Marx) *The Parliament of France* (Liddardale) *Modern Foreign Governments* (Ogg and Zink), *The Fourth Republic of France* (Taylor)

Paper III Diplomatic history and technique

(a) Diplomatic history from 1870 to 1919 (b) Diplomatic technique

Books are recommended

How Foreign Policy is Made (London, K.), *Diplomacy* (Nicolson), *Coming of the First World War* (Mansergh), *Imperialism and World Politics* (Moon, Parker), *A Short History of the Far East* (Vinacake), *Causes of World War I* (Fay)

Paper IV Current international affairs from 1919 to the present day (No questions in this paper are to be set on the organisational aspects of the League of the Nations the U.N.O. etc.) The outline of study under this paper may be given as follows

- 1 The peace settlement of 1919-1922 (a) Its basis, the role of President Wilson, secret arrangements, the treaties, settlement in Eastern Europe, (b) the five treaties with special reference to the treaty of Versailles, (c) settlement with Turkey, (d) the Far East, the Diplomacy of the Washington Conference
- 2 The problem of peace (a) the role of the League of Nations, the League as a force in international politics, the Mandates, the problem of minorities, Recovery, (b) disarmament, (c) the post-war alliance system, the guarantee treaties of the little entente, (d) the post war pact with special reference to the Pact of Paris.
- 3 The economic problem, reparations and Inter-Allied Debts, the Dawes and Young plans, the Hoover Moratorium, the economic crisis and its bearing on international affairs
- 4 The Nazi revolution of 1933, the diplomatic revolution of 1934, the formation of the axis
- 5 Foreign Policy of the great powers—the breakdown of collective security—World War II
- 6 The post war world—the role of the United Nations, the problem of Palestine—the diplomacy of the Far East—events leading to the formation of the two Blocs
- 7 The place of India in world affairs

The books recommended are

A History of International Affairs (Hardy), *International Politics* (Schuman), *Ten Years of World Co-operation* (Drummond), *Disarmament* (Madarianga), *Our Own Times* (King Hall), *History of Diplomacy Vol 3* (Mowat), *The Problem of Palestine* (R.I.I.A.), *The Problem of Minorities* (Mair), *History of Diplomacy* (Petre), *Foreign Policy of India* (Karunakaram)

Diplomacy Final

Paper V Options are allowed in this paper. A student may offer (a) geo-politics or, (b) international economic relations, or (c) commonwealth relations or, (d) the Indian constitution and the social, political, cultural life of India

Paper VI Public International Law (questions of the procedure followed by international institutions like the League of Nations the P C I J, the U N etc are not set in this paper)

The books recommended are

International Law Vols 2 (Oppenheim) *International Law* (Frenwick) *Law of Nations* (Brierly), *A Manual of International Law* (Schwarzenberger) *Leading Cases in International Law* (Pitt Cobblett), *International Law* (Kelsen) *Legal Controls of International Conflict* (Stone), *Cases and Material in International Law* (Dickinson)

Journals The British Year Book of International Law, The American Journal of International Law

Paper VI International organisation from 1815 to the present day This is comprised of (a) Pre league of national era (i) The theory of international organisation and the Hague conferences the institutional and theoretical heritage of the 19th century, nature and problems of the 19th century international community The legislative branch of International Government—law, treaties, conferences congresses, concerts, laws of war, peace and dispute, the judicial branch of international government, arbitration, adjudication, tribunals, courts, mediation and good offices, the executive branch of international government—international regime over transportation and communications, industry and commerce, public health and disease, labour, morals and crimes, international standards etc A survey of regional organisations The Hague conferences, factors leading to them and the institutional contribution of the conference

(b) The era of the League of Nations The first world war and the era of the League of Nations, inter allied organisations during the first world war, the organisation, technique and lessons various schemes for a league of nations, framing of the covenant, the League secretariat, its organisation and problems The League Council—its organisations and functions procedure and role in the League organisation The League Assembly, its organisation, functions procedure, its committee system, an estimate, technical and advisory organisation of the League, the P C I J, the I L O American International Organisation fall of the League of Nations (c) Post war international organisations The second world war and the U N attempts at the evolution of international co operation during the World War II and at setting up of a new International Organisation The Atlantic Charter 1941 The declaration of United Nations, 1942. Dumbarton Oaks proposals, the San Francisco Conference and the United Nations Charter

The Chapter at the U. N. O., the form, character contents, purposes and principles of the Charter Membership of the U N General Assembly—its character, composition and structure, procedure and working—its communities, its functions and powers

The Security Council, its functions and powers The Great Power Veto Tendencies in the working of the Security Council

International economic and social co operation under the U N The Economic and Social Council, the trusteeship system etc

The International Court of Justice, the U N secretariat, specialised agencies, e g , The UNESCO, FAO WHO ILO etc.

The following books are recommended — *International Organisation* (Vinacke) *International Government* (Eagleton), *International Administration* (Hill) *Foundations of Modern World Society* (Manders) *Growth of International Thought* (Stawell), *Origin, Structure and Working of the League of Nations* (Ellis, H) *The League of Nations and the Rule of Law* (Zimmern), *International Organisations* (Leonard) *Ten Years of World Co operation* (Geneva Secretariat), *The International Labour Organisation—the 1st Decade* (I L O) *International Social Progress* (Johnson), *The Permanent Court of International Justice* (Hudson), *Commentary on the Charter of the United Nations Organisation* (Bentwich), *Charter of the United Nations* (Goodrich and Hambro)

Journals — *International Organisation Quarterly*, *United Nations Year Book*

Paper VIII One of the following languages — French, Russian, Arabic, Chinese Spanish The standard required is the same as that for the intermediate examination

CHAPTER XXI

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The following is prescribed as the preparatory course by the Jadavpur University Unless otherwise stated, the references are to courses of study prescribed by Jadavpur University

Civics (i) Origin—nature and functions of the State—rights and duties of citizenship—forms of government and separation of powers, relationship between individuals groups and the State

(ii) The basic objects of the Indian constitution—composition power and functions of the Indian executive, legislature—judiciary, relationship between the States and the Centre, rights and duties of Indian citizen—local bodies and their problems—the U N, its organs.

Paper I. Political theory and modern constitutions (India, U K, U S A and U S S R)

Paper II Outlines of international law and organisation

Teaching of International Relations in B A

International relations is taught as part of political science in B A in the following universities

(i) Gujarat University Paper I—Political organisation—paper II International organisation

(ii) Jadavapur University Outline of international law and organisation

(iii) Rajasthan University An outline study of international relations from 1945 to the present day

International relations is also included in B A as an optional paper in political science in the following universities

(a) Anamalai paper III—international relations and diplomacy

(b) Madras paper IV—international relations and diplomacy

“International relations” is covered by B A (Hons) course of political science in the following universities

1 Bhagalpur University paper V—international relations and organisation since 1919

2 Bihar paper V—international politics from 1919 to the present day

3 Burdwan paper V—international relations

4 Calcutta paper V—international relations

5 Delhi paper V—international relations (1919-1945)

6 Gauhati paper VII—international relations 1918-1939

- 7 Kurukshetra paper VII—international relations (1871-1920)
8. Magadha paper IV—international relations since 1919.
- 9 Baroda paper VI—international relations 1919-57.
- 10 Panjab paper II—international organisation
- 11 Patna paper IV—international relations since 1870
- 12 Punjab international organisation from 1919 to the present day
- 13 Rajasthan paper IV—international relations since 1939 to the present day
- 14 Ranchi paper V—international relations and organisation since 1919
- 15 Utkal paper VI—international organisation

International relations is also one of the optional papers in B A (Hons) in political science in Lucknow (group A—1. international, law 2 international diplomacy and organisation). In fact political science can be divided into two broad sectors dealing with (i) home (ii) outside. The latter has now assumed the full fledged status of a discipline, but forms an integral part of all courses prescribed for political science by all the universities.

International Relations as a Part of study in M A in Political Science

It is a compulsory paper for M A in the following universities Aligarh (paper IV—international relations since 1939, paper VI—international law and organisation), Allahabad (paper VI—international relations), Andhra (paper V), Banaras (paper IV—international affairs from 1919 to the present day), Bagalpur (paper IV) Bihar (paper IV), Bombay (paper V), Calcutta (paper VI—public international law), Delhi (paper IV—public international law), Gauhati (paper IV—international relations, paper VI—international law), Gorakhpur (paper VI—international relations 1919 to the present day), Gujarat (paper VII—international politics), Jabalpur (paper IV—international relations, paper VII—international law), Jadavpur, There is a separate course, for international relations given in this chapter) Karnatak (paper VI—international affairs), Kurukshetra (paper III—international relations since 1919 to the present day)

Lucknow (paper IV—international relations since 1919), M S University of Baroda (paper V—international relations, paper VI—international relations regional studies (A) East Asia or (b) West Asia), Mirathwada (paper II—international politics, paper IV—international relations 1900-1945), Nagpur (paper IV—international relations) Patna (paper IV—international politics and diplomacy) Poona (Paper II—international politics) Rajasthan (paper IV—international politics), Ranchi (paper II—international relations), Sardar Patel (Group I—paper V—

international relations, paper VI—international relations—regional study (A) East Asia (b) West Asia), Saugor (paper III—international relations, Shivaji (paper VIII—international organisation), S N D T (paper IV—international politics)

International relations is one of the optional papers for study for students of M A in political science in the following universities

Agra (paper VI—international law), Allahabad (group D—paper I international affairs 1815 1919, paper II—contemporary international affairs from 1919 to the present day, paper III—international law), Annamalai (paper III—international relations and diplomacy since 1918 or Indian constitutional development since 1958), Banaras Hindu (group D—paper I—theory and practice of diplomacy, paper II—international law, paper III—international affairs (from 1815 to 1918), Bhagalpur (group A—international relations—paper I—international organisation, paper II—public international law), Bihar (group A—paper I—international organisation paper II—public international law), Bombay (group C—paper II—foreign policy and diplomacy), Calcutta (paper III—international relations from 1815 to the present day (including theories of international relations

Delhi (paper II and IV (g) international politics (f) political behaviour (b) international organisations (including public international unions, groups B—paper I—international politics, paper II—international organisations including public international unions—paper III (g) international economics, paper IV (a) international administration (f) international politics (f) international organisations, including public international unions), Gorakhpur (paper III—principles of diplomacy and diplomatic history of the world from 1848 to 1918), Jodhpur (group H—international affairs—paper I—international law and organisation, paper II—Asia and world affairs, paper III Africa and world affairs, paper IV—foreign policies of U S A, U S S R, India, China and U K since world war II), Kerala (group A—paper I, international politics, paper II—international law, paper III—international administration, paper IV—Indian foreign policy since 1857 with documents), Kurukshetra (group A—international relations, paper I—public international law, paper II—international organisation)

Lucknow (group A—international studies—paper I—international law, paper II—international diplomacy and organisation), Madras (paper IV—international relations and diplomacy since 1909), Mysore (group C—paper I, international relations (1871-1950, paper II—outlines of international politics, paper III—international law, paper IV—international organisation and administration), Nagpur (group C—diplomacy and international law), Osmania (group B (a) international

the United Nations Organisation and its activities, (8) post-war events leading to the formation of two blocs, (9) India in world affairs. Some sixteen books are recommended, one is by an Indian, 15 are by foreigners.

International law

Paper XIV—Fifteen books are recommended. All are by foreigners. The details are not given due to paucity of space.

M A in International Relations

As we have observed, international law and international relations are generally included in the courses of study prescribed for M A in political science, history and law. But the Jawahar University provides an M A degree in international relations. The teaching in M A has been divided into eight papers. The details covered by each paper are given below.

International Law

Paper I—Definition and meaning—sources—international law and municipal law—relationship—codification—positivists, naturalists and grotius—subjects of international law—recognition of States and Governments—succession—equality, self preservation—intervention—jurisdiction—responsibility of States—objects of international law—State territory land and water areas and aerial domain—law of the air—modes of acquiring territory—high seas—continental shelf—positions of individuals under international law—nationality—extradition—treaties—human rights—diplomatic immunities—concepts of peace under the United Nations charter.

War—definition and meaning—international disputes—their justifiability—compulsive methods—laws of war—belligerency—armed forces—enemy character—effects of war—occupation—Geneva Convocation of 1949—naval warfare—enemy property at sea—submarine mine laying—submarine warfare—defensive armed merchant men—converted merchant men—prize courts—air warfare—Nuremberg and Tokyo trials—neutrality under the covenant and the United Nations charter—rights and duties of neutrals—blockade—contraband and unneutral service, continuous voyage—concept of aggression under international law.

International Politics and Organisation

Paper II (a) First half—international politics—geography and international politics—population and world politics—economics and international relations—psychological factors in international relations—the force of nationalism—imperialism—forces and power politics—diplomacy, history, its nature and objects.

(b) second half—international organisation—growth of international organisation—the League of Nations—its organs—

their composition, function and working—the I L O—the mandates system—collective security and sanctions—economic and social cooperation under the League.

The United Nations—its organs—their composition, functions and working—the international court of justice—specialised agencies—regionalism and the United Nations—collective security and sanctions—disarmament—international control of atomic energy.

Comparative Government

Paper III—Evolution of constitutionalism—conflicting ideas and backgrounds—contemporary patterns—types of government—systems of law—patterns of obedience—constitutional experiments in underdeveloped countries—legislative business—executive types—judicial systems—party systems—problems of federation and centralisation—modern bureaucracy—planning welfare—nationalisation—electoral systems—crisis governments

International Relations since 1919

Paper IV—The first world war and its effects on international relations—the Paris Peace Conference and the peace settlement (1919–22)—the League of Nations and the problem of security—reparations and inter-allied debts—disarmament and security—the French alliance system—the problems of east European States—fascist Italy and the foreign policy—the Soviet Union and its foreign policy in the interwar period—Weimar and Nazi Germany—the Spanish civil war and the breakdown of the collective security system

The second world war and the new shift in power—the rebuilding and reorientation of Europe—nationalism in Asia and Africa—revolutions in the far east and the middle east—the foreign policies of the U S A and the U S S R.—contemporary Asian and European problems.

Advance Political Theory

Paper V—Development of political science—emergence of the State—an historical view of the relation of State and society and of theories about their relations—the State as a legal association—place and functions of society—sovereignty—pluralistic attack on its law—consent and coercion—the purposes of the State and the idea of justice—authority—liberty and rights—the grounds and limits of obligation—(obligation, resistance and revolution)—public opinion and mass persuasion—democratic and authoritarian governments—functions of the State—political ideals—nationalism and internationalism—individualism and collectivism.

Paper VI

First half—*Indian foreign policy*. Second half—*Modern Indian Political Thought* (with special reference to Shri Aurobindo,

Mahatma Gandhi and M N Roy)

Or

Economic development of Selected Countries

(U K , U S S R , Japan and India)

Paper VII—A student has to offer either group A or group B or group C. The details of study for each of these group are being given below separately

Group A—History and Politics of South East Asia

History and Politics of South East Asian Countries

The historical background The pattern of history—colonial rule—nationalism—the Japanese occupation—independence and after The contemporary setting—the people and the organisation of society—the economy—principal political forces The political process the constitution and the formal structure of government—political parties—elections Major problems: Representative government—economic development—national unity—minorities—internal security—education—foreign relations

Group B History and politics of the Far East

The Far East China and Japan—Japan's expansion in the Meiji area—international relations in Korea and Manchuria before 1914—a critical appraisal of the open door policy—the Chinese revolution of 1911—world war I and its effects on the far east—the Washington Conference—Chinese nationalism and its aftermath—imperial Russia and the Soviet Union in the far east—Chinese borderlands—Mongolia—Sinkiang and Tibet—Japan in the Showa Area—the Manchurian incident of 1931—international relations in the far east 1937-41—the Pacific War.

Post World War II Period The problem of Korea—post-war Japan—Communist China The Soviet Union and the United States in the Far East

Group C—History and Politics of the U S A

Pre Columbian America—Spain in America—Dutch, French and English colonisation—evolution of colonial self-government—westward expansion—rivalry in France—revolution

The confederation—constitution and new government—Hamilton and financial reorganisation—the Jeffersonian revolution of 1800—The Louisiana purchase—war with England—the Monroe doctrine—westward expansion—Jacksonian democracy

Slavery and secessional controversy—civil war and reconstruction—the economic revolution—the Spanish American War—the First World War and its aftermath—Roosevelt and the new deal—America and the second World War—post-war developments

Foreign policy—Determination and formulation of foreign policy—role of President—role of State department—role of congress—role of public opinion—chief phases of foreign policy— isolation—non-involvement—expansionism—participation in world war I—return to isolation—neutrality—world war II— leader of western world—policies regarding major areas of the world.

Paper VIII—First half: Foreign policy of any one of the following countries :

(1) Pakistan (2) Ceylon (3) Nepal (4) Indonesia (5) Communist China.

Or

A Research Paper

Second half:—An elementary course in one of the following languages :

French, Spanish, German, Russian, Chinese, Japanese and Bahasa Indonesia (the language to be taken up by each student is decided by the Head of the department).

The total marks in B.A. final examination and in M.A. examination have been increased by another paper of 100 marks to be allotted as follows:

40 marks for tutorial work during the entire course of study, 40 marks for the annual examination preceding the degree examination and 20 marks for the viva-voce examination.

Diplomas in Foreign Affairs

Diplomas in Foreign Affairs/International Affairs are awarded by the universities of Aligarh, Lucknow and Patna. The Rajasthan University also provides for Post—M.A. Diploma in International Affairs.

The course of studies at Aligarh comprises : Paper I—International politics, Paper II International Law and Organisation, Paper III—Diplomatic history of East Asia (1919-1950) or Diplomatic history of West Asia (1919-1950), Paper—IV Diplomatic history of U.S.A. since 1919 or diplomatic history of U.S.S.R. since 1917.

The above details, though boring to a layman, would be of interest to readers—who want to know what is being taught in international relations in India. It is also necessary to give an idea about the enrolments. In 1964-65 no student was studying international relations in M.A. ; one candidate was enrolled in Ph.D. This does not however mean that students were not studying international relations or international law. The universities generally do not provide a course of studies separately—as an independent discipline, because the subject is generally covered by political science.

CHAPTER XXII

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration as the name indicates should fall in the group of administrative sciences, and a view might be shared by some that it should not be treated under social sciences. On that analogy political science being the parent science of public administration should also be excluded from this purview. But it is not so. Politics and economics are the two basic disciplines which lead the other social sciences.

In some of the universities, public administration is one of the compulsory papers for B.A. in political science. For example: Aligarh—paper IV—public administration with special reference to India. Andhra—paper IV—public administration. Bombay—group I—politics—paper II, public administration and local government. Gujarat—group (4)—paper I—local government and public administration. Lucknow—paper I—political theory and public administration. Sardar Patel—Paper V—elements of public administration and local government. Shri Venkateshwar—paper III—public administration.

In some others public administration is an optional paper for B.A. examination in political science. For example, Madras—paper II—elements of public administration, for B.A. in political science. It is a compulsory paper for B.A. (Hons.) in political science in some of the universities. For example: Bhagalpur—paper III—public administration and local government in India and U.K., Bihar—paper III—(as in Bhagalpur). Karnatak—paper III—public administration for B.A. major examination. Kurukshetra—paper VIII—principles of public administration. Magadh—paper III (same as in Bhagalpur). M.S. University of Baroda—paper IV—public administration and local government.

It is one of the compulsory papers for B.A. (Hons.) in political science at the following universities also: Mysore—(paper III), Rajasthan (paper V), Ranchi (paper III—public administration and local government in India, U.K., U.S.A. and France), Shri Venkateshwar (paper III), Utakal (public administration with special reference to India).

It is also one of the optional papers for B.A. (Hons.), in political science at the Lucknow university (group 'B'—political institutions—public administration).

Public Administration in M.A. as a part of M.A. in political science

Some Indian universities have given it a status of distinct discipline and award M.A. degree in public administration, (Nagpur, Karnatak, Lucknow, Madras, Osmania Patna) while others, provide for the study of this in M.A. as an integral part of M.A. in political science.

To give an idea of the above, public administration constitutes a compulsory paper in the following universities. The serial number of paper constituting public administration is given in brackets. Agra (5), Banaras (5), Bhagalpur (5), Bihar (5), Bombay (5), Calcutta (5—public administration with special reference to India and Britain and including public corporation), Gorakhpur (3), Gujarat (3—public administration with special reference to India U.K., and U.S.A.), Jodhpur (5), Karnatak (6), Kurukshetra (6), Marathwada (6), Mysore (3), Nagpur (3), Patna (5), Poona (4), Ranchi (3), Sardar Patel (3—public administration with special reference to India, U.K. and U.S.A.), Saugor (4), Utkal (3).

Optional

In some of the universities public administration is one of the optional papers for students offering political science for M.A. degree. Bhagalpur (paper I group B, public administration in India), Delhi (group 'A' politics—paper (e) public administration in India—group 'C' at Delhi—public administration. It provides for three papers: 1. essentials of public administration, 2. economic administration, 3. modern political thought. At Jodhpur, group III constitutes public administration and government. It comprises four papers: 1. public administration in U.K., U.S.A., and India, 2. local Government in India, England, U.S.A. and India, 3. selected Afro-Asian constitutions and administration, 4. Indian government and politics with special reference to the working and recent trends. In Kerala University the option group 'B' for M.A. in political science has seven papers: (1) principles of management, (2) public personnel, administration, (3) financial administration, (4) international administration, (5) local administration, (6) administrative law, (7) principles of public administration. At Kurukshetra, group 'C' constitutes 'public administration'. It consists of two papers: 1. local government, 2. administrative law. At Lucknow public administration is paper III in political science course for M.A. Part II. At Madras elements of public administration is one of the optional papers. At Mysore paper I of group A pertains to public administration. Three papers in group B are: (1) principles of management, 2. public personnel administration, 3. administrative law.

The position at some other universities is as follows, the paper number dealing with public administration is given within brackets.

Osmania (group A—(a) Indian administration, (b) problems of public administration), Panjab (8), Patna (group D—public administration paper (i) social administration, (ii) administrative law), Punjabi (8), Rajasthan (group C—public administration—three papers: 1. comparative public administration in U.K., U.S.A. and U.S.S.R., 2. public administration in India, 3.

local government in England, U.S.A. France and India), Utkal (group C, paper II—Indian administration and community development in India), Vikram paper (c)

Normally we would not have devoted a separate chapter to public administration, but since M.A. degree is being awarded in public administration, we recognise that the study of this branch is no longer in the state of infancy but has attained the 'age of majority' and must be allotted the status of a distinct discipline. Just as sociology, statistics, demography, industrial sociology and criminology were being taught as subsidiary subjects but have now outgrown their subsidiary character and are being treated as independent subjects of study, so also award of degree of M.A. in public administration entitles it to that status.

In view of this it becomes necessary to give details of study prescribed for M.A. and details are being furnished, without which a full picture would not emerge.

The course prescribed for M.A. in public administration and the recommended reading by the Lucknow University would give an idea of the detailed teaching in Indian universities. As several universities provide for M.A. degree in public administration naturally the courses differ but a perusal of the following would furnish a fairly good idea of the broad features which are common to all the universities.

Details of curriculum prescribed by the Lucknow University are furnished below.

Public Administration

M.A., Part I

Paper I Principles of Public Administration

Theories of administration, legislative executive relations, organization of public authorities problems of planning, co-ordination, leadership and authority, relation of politics to administration and civil services

Recommended Readings

- 1 Papers on the Science of Administration (Gulick and Urwick, ed)
- 2 Public Administration (Simon and others)
- 3 Bureaucracy in a Democracy (Hyneman, C.H.)
- 4 Functions of the Executive (Barnard, C.I.)
- 5 Administration (Lepawsky, A.)
- 6 Ideas and Issues in Public Administration (Waldo, D.)
- 7 Civil Service in Britain and France (Robson, W.A.)
- 8 Administrative Behaviour (Simon, H.A.)
- 9 Public Administration and Policy Development (Stein, H. ed)
- 10 Public Administration in Theory and Practice (Sharma, M.P.)

Paper II Comparative Governments and Administration

The paper includes a study of modern constitutions, forms of governments, legislature, executive and the judiciary, methods of

representation and political parties, the organisational set up of the governments of U S A , U K. and Switzerland are also to be examined

Recommended Readings

- 1 Constitutional Government and Democracy (Friedrich, C J)
- 2 Constitutionalism Ancient and Modern (McLaboain, C H)
- 3 Constitutions and Constitutional Trends since World War II (Zurcher, A J ed)
- 4 Theory and Practice of Modern Government (Finer, H)
- 5 Recent Political Thought (Coker)
- 6 Governments of the Greater European Powers (Finer, H.)
- 7 Essentials of American Government (Ogg and Ray).

Paper III Local Government.

- (i) special attention is given to the problems of regional and local administration in U.K., France, Germany and the U S A — local finance is also included,
- (ii) development of Municipal Government in India urban and rural with particular reference to its executive, deliberative and fiscal machinery and State control, village panchayats, with particular reference to Rajasthan, Andhra and Uttar Pradesh
- (iii) administration of major cities and metropolitan areas with special reference to governmental pattern and functional problems.

Recommended Readings

- 1 English Local Government (Finer, H).
- 2 Introduction to French Local Government (Chapman, B)
- 3 Foundations of Local Self Government of India Pakistan and Burma (Tinker, H)
- 4 Great Cities of the World (Robson, W A).
- 5 Local Self-Government and Finance in U.P. (Sharma, M P.).
- 6 Local Finance in India (Gyan Chand).
- 7 Appointed Executive Local Government Royal commission on local government in Greater London Memoranda of evidence from Government Departments (Bollens, J C)
- 8 Municipal and other Local Governments (Fisher, M J)
- 9 State and local Government in America (Bishop, D G, Phillips, J U)
- 10 Local Government in England and Wales (Maud, J and Finer, S E)
11. Local Government in Rural America (Snider, C F)
- 12 Comparative Local Government (Harris, G M)
- 13 State and the Local Government—Report of the Indian local Finance Enquiry Committee (Adrian, C E)
- 14 Governing New York City (Sayre, W S)
- 15 Government of India, Report of the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee
- 16 Grassroots of Democracy (Roscoe Martin)
- 17 Local Finance Enquiry Committee Report (Santhanam, K)

Paper IV (i) Leadership and Political Institutions

- (a) Groups in the political process groups and society groups and government, group organization and problem of leadership

local government in England, U.S.A. France and India), Utkal (group C, paper II—Indian administration and community development in India), Vikram paper (c)

Normally we would not have devoted a separate chapter to public administration, but since M.A. degree is being awarded in public administration, we recognise that the study of this branch is no longer in the state of infancy but has attained the 'age of majority' and must be allotted the status of a distinct discipline. Just as sociology, statistics, demography, industrial sociology and criminology were being taught as subsidiary subjects, but have now outgrown their subsidiary character and are being treated as independent subjects of study, so also award of degree of M.A. in public administration entitles it to that status.

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- (iii) administration of major cities and metropolitan areas with special reference to governmental pattern and functional problems.

Recommended Readings

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- 2 Introduction to French Local Government (Chapman, B)
- 3 Foundations of Local Self Government of India Pakistan and Burma (Tinker, H)
- 4 Great Cities of the World (Robson, W A).
- 5 Local Self-Government and Finance in U P (Sharma, M P.).
- 6 Local Finance in India (Gyan Chand).
7. Appointed Executive Local Government — Royal commission on local government in Greater London Memoranda of evidence from Government Departments (Bollens, J C)
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- 11 Local Government in Rural America (Snider, C F)
- 12 Comparative Local Government (Harris, G M)
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- 14 Governing New York City (Sayre, W S)
- 15 Government of India, Report of the Rural-Urban Relationship Committee
- 16 Grassroots of Democracy (Roscoe Martin)
- 17 Local Finance Enquiry Committee Report (Sathyanam, K)

Paper IV. (i) Leadership and Political Institutions

- (a) Groups in the political process, groups and society, group and government, group organization and problem of leadership

- (b) Leadership in democratic organization—cause and factors, psychology of power, social analysis of leadership, checks upon the influence of leaders and oligarchic tendencies of organisation
 (c) Leadership and political institutions in India

Recommended Readings

The Governmental process Political Interest and public opinion (Truman David B) 2 Political Parties (Michels, R) 3 Political Parties and Pressure groups (Key, V O Jr) 4 Leadership and Political Institutions in India (Park and Tinker) 5. Leadership in Administration (Selznick, Philip) 6 Political Man (Lipset, S M) 7 Power and Society (Lesswell, H and Kaplan, A) 8. The Art of Leadership (Tead, O)

Or

(i) Development Administration

Planning Its nature scope and process of working—techniques of planning in India—process of plan formulation at various levels—general principles sectoral break-up and contents of the Five Year Plans, major development heads, planning and agricultural production

- (a) *Planning Machinery in India* (i) The working of the Planning Commission National Development Council, Research Programmes Committee and Programme Evaluation Organisation
 (ii) State Planning department—its working and relationship with the agricultural production commissioner's organisation
 (b) Impact of planning on Union-State relations

Rural Development Programmes (a) Community Development Administration (b) Panchayati raj administration—institutional framework and problems (c) Co-ordination.

Recommended Readings

- 1 The Process and Organisation of Government Planning (Millet, J D)
- 2 Freedom under Planning (Wooten, B)
- 3 Freedom, Power and Democratic Planning (Mannheim, K)
- 4 Problems of Economic Planning (Durbin, E F M)
- 5 Fundamentals of Planning in India (Krisnamachari, V T)
- 6 Development Administration—Concepts and Problems (Swerdlow, I)
- 7 Prospects for Indian Development (Malenbaum W)
- 8 Decentralisation for National and Local Development (United Nations)
- 9 Public Administration Aspects of C D Programmes (United Nations)
- 10 Decentralisation and Development (Meddick, H)
- 11 Five Year Plans (Planning Commission)
- 12 Studies in Economic Development (Bonne A)
- 13 Methods and Programme Planning in Rural Extension (Penders, J A M)
- 14 Report of the Team for the study of C P and NES—volumes I and II (Mehta, B R)
- 15 A D Jads of Planned Economy A critical Examination of Indian Plans (Jyenger, S Kesava)

16. Economic Planning. (Harris, S.E.) 17. District Administration. (Khera, S.S.) 18. The Quiet Crisis in India (Lewis, J.P.)

Or

(iii) Social Administration

The welfare State : its origin and objectives—the nature of the social services—comparison with other public services—type of administrative action, social service organisation, central departments—social authorities and ad hoc bodies—interrelation between the social services and voluntary agencies—delegation—the growth of new social services—housing and town planning—social reform and social legislation—planning of social welfare.

Recommended Readings :

1. Social Security in India and Britain (Rai Chaudhari, S.)
2. —10 Methods of social welfare administration (United Nations Social Welfare 1950)
3. Essays on the Welfare State. (Titmus, R. M.)
4. The Development of Social Administration. (Gardiner, R. K. and Jodd, H. O.)
5. Government and Social Welfare (Wassey, W.)
6. Introduction to Social Welfare (Friedlaender, W. A.)
7. Social Welfare in India (Planning Commission).
8. Social Legislation—its Role in Social Welfare. (Planning Commission).
9. Plans and Prospects of Social Welfare in India—(1951-61) (Planning Commission).

Or

(iv) Organisation and Management

(i) Attention is given in the course to a discussion of the theory and principles of organization and management and to organisation and methods of work. The topics covered are : organisation, theories and concepts—principles and structure, management—nature, scope and functions (POSDCORB), management—improvement, O. and M. study, operations research, automation, office management, management survey of O. M. in India and abroad.

Recommended Readings :

1. Organization and Management—Theory and Practice (Seckler Hudson, C.)
2. Administrative Organisation (Piffner, J. M. and Sherwood, F. P.)
3. The Framework of Management (Broch, E. F. L.)
4. Management in the Public Service. (Millet, J. D.)
5. Organization and Management (Barnard, C. I.)
6. Introduction to Theory and Practice of Management (Banton, N.)
7. Administrative Organization (1957-1960) (Meyer Paul)
8. Principles of Management (Terry, G. R.)
9. Organization and Method (Hallward, G. E.)
10. Handbook of Organisation and Methods Techniques (Devery, H. O.)
11. Improvement of O. and M. in Public Administration. (Kingdom, T. D.)

Or

(v) Statistics in Public Administration

(i) *Statistical Data* : Histogram and frequency distribution—measures of central tendency : mean, median, mode, measures of

dispersion, standard of deviation range, mean deviation, quartile deviation, ogive and percentiles correlation, regression and tests of significance (ii) *Sampling* sampling vs complete enumeration, random and non random methods of sampling systematic sampling, stratified sampling quota sampling, cluster sampling, multistage sampling precision, accuracy, bias and standard error (iii) *Vital statistics* Elements of vital statistics crude and standardised birth and death rates gross and net reproduction rates, census tables (iv) Construction of index numbers and their uses (v) Time series (vi) Agricultural statistics crop estimation, large-scale sample surveys

Recommended Readings

- 1 Introduction to Theory of Statistics (Yule G U and Kendal, M G)
- 2 Introduction of Mathematical Statistics (Hoel)
- 3 Sampling Techniques (Cochran)
- 4 Sampling for Census Surveys (Yates, F)
- 5 Statistical Methods for Research Workers (Fisher, R A)
- 6 Survey Design and Analysis (Hyman, H)
- 7 Demography (Cox, P R)
- 8 Allied General Statistics (Cresten N E and Cowden, D J)
- 9 Survey Pools and Samples (Partew, M)
- 10 Guide to Current Official Statistics (Government of India)
- 11 Statistics Theory and Practice (Ghosh, M K and Chaudhary, S C)
- 12 Social Statistics (Blalock H M)

Paper V Seminar and Essay work

M A Part II

Paper I Research Methods in Public Administration

Research design—general goals, specific objectives, concepts, variables, hypotheses, definitions, defining the population, pilot studies, exploratory studies, descriptive and explanatory objectives

Constructing Questionnaires and Schedules Question content and wording sequence of questions, open and closed questions comparison of interview schedules and questionnaires, reliability and validity

Basic ideas of sampling Probability and non probability sampling quota sampling use of random numbers

Interviewing Advantages and limitations of mail questionnaires, non-response, types of interviewing, role of interviews, rapport reporting, interviewer bias, collection and training.

Coding and Data Processing Editing establishing categories, coding, coding reliability, punching and consistency checking and tabulation

Scales and Scaling

Other methods of data collection Observation, documents, projective and indirect methods the case study

Analysis, Interpretation and Reporting Preparation of tables, interpretation and report writing

Recommended Readings

- 1 Survey Methods in Social Investigation (Meoser C A)
- 2 Research Methods in Social Relations (Selltiz and others, ed)
- 3 Research Methods in the Behavioural Sciences (Festinger and Katz (eds)
- 4 Methods in Social Research (Goode and Lazarsfeld and Resenberg Eds)
- 5 Scientific Social Surveys and Research (Young, P V)

Paper II—Public Personnel Administration

It includes a study of the nature of bureaucracy—its role in the democratic society, a comparative study is also required to be made of position classification recruitment, training associations, retirement and rationale of administrative behaviour

Recommended Reading

- 1 Essays in Sociology From Max Weber) (Gerth and Mills, Eds), 2 Bureaucracy in a Democracy (Hyneman C S), 3 Civil Service in Britain and France (Robson W A), 4 Civil Service in India (Roy, N C) 5 Reader in Bureaucracy (Merton, R K and others) 6 Public Personnel Administration (Stahl, O G) 7 Administrative Behaviour (Simon, H A) 8 UP Pay Rationalization Committee Report

Paper III (i) Problems of Urban Government

The course deals with major organizational problems of local self government in India and abroad. Emphasis is laid on the following

- 1 municipal jurisdictions and areas, 2 governmental dynamics 3 municipal executive, 4 inter governmental relations, 5 major functional problems (a) education, (b) housing (c) town and country planning and the like problems, (d) municipal ownership, (e) finance, (f) public health

Recommended Readings

- 1 Urban Re developments Problems and Practice (Woodhury Coleman, ed) 2 Industrial Housing in India (Agarwal, S C) 3 Renewing Our Cities (Coleman, M D) 4 Local Government Finance and its Importance for Local Authority (Rome Conference Paper 1955) (I U L A) 5 Local Government Areas, 1834 1945 (Lipman, V D) 6 Financial Administration in Local Government (Marshall, A H) 7 Governing New York City (Sayer, W S) 8 Great Cities of the World (Rohson W A) 9 Report of the Rural Urban Relationship Committee (Government of India) 10 Report of the Local Finance Enquiry Committee (Santhanam) 11 Governmental Manpower for Tomorrow's Cities (Corson, J J) 12 Urban Government (Banfield, E C) 13 Government of UP UP Nagar Mahapalika Adhiniyam, 1959

Or

(ii) Problems of Rural Government

- 1 Development of the ideas of rural self government—emergence of Panchayati Raj—integrated approach—three tier system of local government—legislation in different States Major problems
 (a) Direct and Indirect election (b) Powers and functions,
 (c) Finances 2 Personnel 3 Inter Governmental Relations

Recommended Readings

- 1 Panchayati Raj A Synthesis (Dey, S K) 2 Community Development in India (Mukerjee, B) 3 Report of the Democratic Decentralization Committee (Rural Development department, Gujarat, 1960), 4 Village Government in India A case study (Retzlaff R H) 5 The Functions of Local Self Government in India Pakistan and Burma (Tinker, Hugu) 6 Decentralization for National and Local Government (Department of Economic and Social Affairs Division of Public Administration United Nations 1962) 7 Report of the team for the study of community projects and national extension service, Vols I, II, III, Part I (Committee on Plan Projects, 1957) 8 Democracy, Decentralization and Development (Meddick, Henry) 9 Introduction to French Local Government (Chapman Brian) 10 Finance of Local Government England and Wales (Drummond, J M) 11 Report on Indian and State Administrative Services and Problems of District Administration, 1962. (Krishnamachari, V T) 12 Grass roots of Democracy (Roscoe and Martin) 13 The Politics of State and Local Government (Lokard, D) 14 UP Kshettra Samitis and Zila Parishads Adhiniyam, 1961 (Government of UP)

Paper IV (i) Management of Public Enterprises

- 1 Importance of Public Enterprise 2 Forms of Public Enterprises in India (a) State Corporations, (b) State Companies 3 Problems of Management — (a) Ministerial and governmental relations, (b) Staffing and training, (c) Coordination and Control 2 Administrative Problems of New Projects (a) measurement of management (b) flight of technical personnel

Recommended Readings

- 1 Public Enterprise and Economic Development (Hanson A H) 2 Nationalised Industry and Public Ownership (Robson, W A) 3 The Public Corporations, (Friedmann W) 4 Problems of Nationalised Industry (Robson W A) 5 The Structure of Public Enterprises in India (Ramanadham V V) 6 British Planning and Nationalisation (Levis, B W) 7 Re Examination of India's Administrative System with special reference to administration of governments industrial and commercial enterprises (Appleby, P H) 8 Report of the sub committee on Parliamentary supervision over State Undertaking (Krisbna Menon, V K, Chairman)

9 Management and Control in Public Enterprises (Khera, S S) 10 Management Organisation and Control in Public Enterprises (Om P Kausbal) 11 Theory and Working of State Corporations with special reference to India—Annual Reports of D V C and State Companies (Om P Kaushal) 12 Report of the Estimates Committees (a) 16th Report (First Lok Sabha) Organisation and Administration of Nationalised Industrial Undertakings (b) 80th Report (Second Lok Sabha) Public Undertaking, Forms and Organization 13 Report of Select Committee on Nationalised Industries (House of Commons U K) 14 Government in Business (Khera S S)

Or

(ii) Fiscal Administration

1 Importance of fiscal administration (a) administrative responsibility and fiscal accountability (b) patterns of legislative authorization and forms of accountability 2 Budgetary process and decisions in the executive and legislative action 3 Execution of the budget (a) budgetary principles and test of practice (b) allotments and apportionment 4 Accounting and control of finances auditing and parliamentary control—the above outlines point to the problem areas of fiscal administration in which illustrations are given from the 'fiscal administration' in U K, U S A, France and India

Recommended Readings

1 Government Budgeting (Burkhead J) 2 Budgetary Structure and Classification of Government Accounts (United Nations) 3 Budgeting in Public Authorities (Royal Institute of Public Administrations) 4 Parliamentary Financial Control in India (Wattal, P K) 5 Indian Administration (Part IV) (Asbok Chand) 6 The Theory and Working of Union Finance in India (Bhargava, R N) 7 The Budgetary Process in the United States (Smithies, A) 8 Principles of Public Finance (Dalton, H)

Paper V—(i) International Administration

An examination is made of the problems of administering international agencies with special reference to administrative organization, personnel budget administrative management and related functions—A comparative study is made of administrative practices and organizations in the U N O, I L O, UNESCO and similar agencies Special emphasis is laid on those problems of administration that arise because of different cultural backgrounds

Recommended Readings

(1) Field Administration in the United Nations System (Sharp W R) (2) Reflections on International Administration (Loveday, A)

Or

(ii) Government and Administration in Uttar Pradesh

(a) governmental structure—executive, legislature and judiciary, (b) role of political parties—organization and function of various political parties decision making at the political level and the role of the civil servants, (c) headquarters and field relationship role of directorates—their relationship with the heads of the departments in the secretariat and the field organization (d) major administrative problems (a) health, (b) education, (c) police, (d) transport, (e) revenue

Recommended Readings

(1) Annual reports and other publications brought out by the various departments of the government of U P, (2) other reading material referred by the teacher concerned in the class

Or

(iii) History of Administrative Ideas and Institutions

A survey will be made of major concepts and administrative practices from earliest to modern times, and analysis will be made of the contribution of scholars and statesman to organization methodology in governmental administration

Recommended Readings

1 Administration (Lepawsky, A) 2 Ideas and Issues in Public Administration (Waldo, D, ed) 3 Administrative State (Waldo, D) 4 The origin of Manchu rule in China Frontier and Bureaucracy an interacting force in the Chinese Empire (Kardiner Abram) 5 The Civil Service in Ancient Civilization (Cary, M, 6 Politics and Westernization in the Near East (Rustow, D A) 7 Theory of Social and Economic Organisation (Weber, M)

Or

(iv) Thesis (Based on field work)

Or

(v) Administrative Law

(a) Nature and Scope Rule of law and administrative law, theory of separation of powers rise of delegated legislation, process and forms of delegated legislation problems of delegated legislation, controls over delegated legislation (b) administrative adjudication, composition, nature and scope of administrative tribunals, a study of selected tribunals judicial control over administrative tribunals, remedies liability of State.

Recommended Readings

1 Principles of Administrative Law (Griffith, J A G and Street, H) 2 An Introduction to American Administrative Law, (Schwartz, B) 3 Administrative Law (Wade H W R) 4 Law and Orders (Allen, C K) 5 Justice and Administrative Law (Robson, W A) 6 Judicial control of administrative action in India Reports of the committee on Minister's Powers 1932 Report of the Frank Committee on Tribunals and Enquiries, 1957 (Markese, A T)

The above course of studies prescribed by one university has been furnished to provide a complete picture of what a student appearing at the M A examination is expected to read

During the academic year 1964-65 there were 291 students in M A in the university department and 7 in affiliated colleges Thus the total of M A students (both previous and final) was 298 During this year the number of Ph D students in public administration was 9 only

As regards number of theses accepted for the award of doctorate—during the period 1960-64, only one student of the Panjab University took the Ph D degree in public administration

Diploma Courses

The universities of Lucknow, Madras, Patna and Delhi provide diploma courses in public administration

SECTION III : PSYCHOLOGICAL SCIENCES

CHAPTER XXIII

PSYCHOLOGY

According to Gardner Murphy, "when emphasis is given to the nature of the environment in which living individuals function, we find ourselves concerned with sociology or other social sciences. There is a tendency today to emphasise in psychology the inter-change reciprocity or interdependence of the living individual and his environment, especially in his socio cultural environment. From this vantage point, there is a place for developmental considerations, and for comparative studies in which emphasis is placed upon differences traceable to age, sex, health and other specific personal factors."

Gardner Murphy is the Director of Research Menninger Foundation. He was also the President of American Psychological Association. Under the auspices of UNESCO, he organised research teams in India, with a view to studying 'social tensions'. According to him, 'one of the most fundamental concepts of psychology is that of the mutual dependence of hereditary and environmental factors which determine the personal way of seeing, thinking, remembering, feeling or acting. Psychology has thus been included as one of the distinct disciplines, included in social sciences.'

It would, therefore, be necessary to give an idea of teaching of psychology in the Indian universities.

Teaching of Psychology in B.A.

The university courses are more or less parallel and a reference to one of the universities, say, Bombay would give a fairly good idea of the scope and contents of teaching in this discipline.

General

(i) Basic Psychology

Paper I—Psychology

1. The science of psychology. The field of psychology. Origins of scientific psychology. Methods of observation. The uses of Psychology.
2. Maturation and development. Mechanisms of heredity. Heredity and environment. Maturation and growth.

*See 'Psychology' by Gardner Murphy—Chapter 4 of 'A New Survey of Social Sciences' published by Asia Publishing House, Bombay.

- 3 Drives and motivation The nature of motivation Physiological drives General drives Deprivation Modification of motives Complex motives
- 4 Feeling and emotion Emotional development Emotional habits and motives Emotional expression
- 5 Frustration and conflict Conflict of motives Effects of frustration Defence mechanisms Neurotic reactions Psychotic reactions
- 6 Mental health and psychotherapy The problem of mental health Kinds of therapy Techniques in psychotherapy Personal adjustment
- 7 Principles of learning Factors in learning Classical conditioning Instrumental learning Avoidance learning Perceptual learning Maze learning
- 8 Human learning and forgetting Acquiring skills Memory processes Transfer of training Retention Forgetting
- 9 Language and thinking Signs, symbols and meaning The thinking process Formation and meaning of concepts The solution of problems Logical reasoning Language and communication Complex processes in animals
- 10 Perception and attention Sensory discrimination The role of attention Perception of objects Perception of depth Perceptual constancy Co operation among the senses Experience and motivation
11. Personality Personality characteristics How personality develops. Theories of personality

Paper II—Social Psychology

- 1 Introduction to social psychology Sociological vs psychological approaches Research methods in social psychology
- 2 Socialization, the matrix of personality Biological and Cultural backgrounds—interaction of heredity and environment, personality and social behaviour Culture and personality culture and personality formation, personality structure in simple and modern societies, Subculture Family, school and peer group— influence of home and family, school and personality development, peer groups and personality development Community, social class and ethnic status
- 3 Socialization—Its processes and products Motives, conflicts and defences—instincts, drives and motives, principles and theories of motivation Cognitive processes perceiving and learning—development of perception, learning sequence in social situations Social attitudes, norms and values—nature and measurement of attitudes, patterning of social attitudes, Social heritage and social norms, the role of values The ego and self—self and its origin

4 Interpersonal relations Communicating and symbolizing—the nature of communication, language, culture and thinking, pitfalls of symbolism Modes of social interaction—factors in social interaction, process of social interaction, mutual social interaction interaction based on changing relationship major determinants of social interaction

The structure and properties of social groups—importance and classification of groups, approaches of the study of groups, some dimensions of groups Social roles—importance of roles, conflict in roles, value of the role concept Leadership—types of leadership, traits of the leader function of leadership role, authoritarian and democratic leadership Person and the group

5 Understanding social phenomena Public opinion—nature and formation of public opinion, principles of scientific polling. Effects of public opinion polls Propaganda—the meaning of propaganda, techniques and principles of propaganda Mass behaviour—fashion, fads, crazes booms, rumour, the crowd Social change—psychological factors in social change The psychology of social movements—characteristics and stages of social movements

6 Improving human relations Group dynamics and its applications—development of group dynamics, social psychology of industry

7 Ethnic relations and prejudice—race and ethnic group differences, areas of prejudice the functioning of prejudice, changing ethnic attitudes Social psychology and international relations—contributions to peace understanding war and its causes The present and future of social psychology

(ii) Biopsychology

Paper I—Physiological Psychology

1 Introduction Physiology and psychology Structure and function Physiological psychology defined Contributions of physiological psychology The development of physiological psychology

2. The organism Characteristics of protoplasm Organismic functions Maintenance of functional integrity Homeostasis Limitations of homeostasis Homeostasis and psychology The integration of organism The mechanism of integration

3. Conducting cells and nerve action The development of nervous integration The neuron The nerve impulse The excitation of the nerve fibres The speed of the nerve impulse Nervous fatigue The synapse Functional properties of synapse Effects of parallel fibres The neuron and behaviour

4 Introduction to central nervous system Basic structures of CNS Evidence of CNS functions

5 Irritable cells—sensation and perception Functions of receptors Stimulus Sensory thresholds Dimensions of sensation Physiological correlates Physical correlates Characteristics of the organism Adaptation Role of CNS in sensation

6 Vision Anatomy and Physiology The stimulus Psychological dimensions and relationships The psychophysics of vision Perimetry and colour zones of retina Stimulus mixture Adaptation After-sensation Simultaneous contrast Visual acuity Temporal patterning Colour deficiencies

7 Audition The stimulus Psychological dimensions of sound, Receptors and central nervous system connections Auditor thresholds Auditory defects Adaptation Localization of sound Speech

8 Chemical senses The question of common chemical sense Gustation—Receptors and central nervous connections, experimental difficulties, stimulus, qualities, thresholds, adaptation, deficiencies Olfaction—receptors and central nervous connections, experimental difficulties, stimulus, qualities, thresholds, adaptation, anosmia

9 Secreting cells and chemical integration Differentiation of secreting cells The endocrine system in man Major functions of hormones

10 Autonomic functions Chemical characteristics of ANS Functions of SNS Functions of PNS Individual difference in autonomic functions Parasympathetic overcompensation Conditioned response and autonomic functions

11 Emotional behaviour Emotion as a visceral action

12 Psychosomatic problems The mind body problem Psychogenic behaviour Psychosomatics and somatopsychics Psychosomatic disorders Role of autonomic functions The role of muscular tension Treatment of psychosomatic disorders

Paper II—Animal Psychology

1 Basic characteristics of animal behaviour General types of animal behaviour Why study animal behaviour?

Methods of study animal behaviour—Observation and description of behaviour, the experimental analysis of behaviour

2 Organic evolution Classification of animals Principle phyla of animals Evolution of the nervous system

3 Differential capacities Anatomy and behaviour Sensory capacities—tactile senses, chemical senses, sound and light Motor capacities—locomotion, jet propulsion, wormlike movements Motor capacities—prehension and manipulation Capacities of the central nervous system Relationship between basic capacities and general patterns of adaptation

4 Inborn behaviour of animal Taxes Reflexes Instinctive and motivated behaviour—The physiology of behaviour.

- 5 Learning Effects of experience Imprinting Habituation Classical conditioning and operant conditioning Trial and error learning Phylogeny of learning Neural mechanisms of learning
- 6 Intelligence The Organization of behaviour The adaptive value of behaviour The nature of external stimulation The organization of behaviour
- 7 Complex processes Reasoning Brain function in animals Brains function in man
- 8 Social behaviour and social organization Differentiation of social behaviour Organisation of an animal society Comparison with other animal societies Socialization The formation of primary social relationships
- 9 Communication—The language of animals Communications in bees, birds, mammals Animal language and Human language
- 10 Abnormal behaviour of animals

(iii) Abnormal and Child Psychology

Paper I—Abnormal Psychology

- 1 Abnormal behaviour in our times Abnormal behaviour as the layman sees it Abnormal behaviour as the scientist sees it
- 2 Development of our modern views Demonology among the ancients Early medical concepts Demonology in the Middle Ages Reappearance of scientific questioning Establishment of mental hospitals Emergence of scientific theories and practices Psychiatry today
- 3 Personality development and adjustment Determinants of personality Patterning of development Motivation of behaviour Problems of adjustments Reactions to stress Types of psychological stress reactions Excessive stress and decomposition
- 4 Causes of abnormal behaviour, Faulty biological development Faulty psychological development Sociological factors in faulty development Severe biological, psychological and sociological stress
- 5 Transient situational personality disorders Traumatic reactions to combat Reactions to civilian catastrophes Reactions to chronic situational stress
- 6 Psychoneurotic disorders The neurotic nucleus Specific reaction patterns and dynamics General etiology of the neuroses Therapy of the neuroses Prognosis for the neuroses
- 7 Psychophysiologic disorders Types of psychophysiologic disorders Dynamics of psychophysiologic reactions Treatment and prognosis
- 8 The functional psychoses Classification and symptoms of psychoses General etiological considerations General prognosis

for psychotic reactions. Schizophrenic reaction types. Paranoid reactions. Affective psychotic reactions. Involutional psychotic reactions. Distinction between functional and organic psychoses.

9. Personality disorders: Special symptom reactions. Psychopathic reaction. The problem of delinquency and crime. Deviant sexual behaviour.

10. Alcoholism and drug addiction.

11. Mental retardation. Diagnosis and classification. Etiology. Clinical types of retardation. Retardation and abnormal behaviour. Treatment and prevention of mental retardation.

12. Diagnosis and therapy: Collection and integration of diagnostic information. Medical therapy. Psychotherapy. Major systematic approaches to psychotherapy. Evaluation of psychotherapy. Sociotherapy. Trends in the treatment of mental disorders.

13. Action for mental health: Perspectives on prevention. International measures for mental health.

Paper II—Child Psychology

1. The practical importance of child psychology. Prescientific child psychology. Child psychology and scientific process. General child study approaches. Sources of material of child study. Techniques of evaluation in child study.

2. General principles of development: Directions of development. Maturation and learning.

3. Biological bases of development: significance of biological inheritance. Beginnings of life. Hereditary transmission. Neonatal and first year development. Physical growth in childhood. Physical growth and behaviour.

4. Environmental and cultural influences: Prenatal environmental influences. Environmental influences and developing child. Cultural patterns and developing child.

5. Motor growth and development: Motor development during prenatal and neonatal periods. Maturation and motor control. Guiding the development of motor control.

6. Cognitive development: The development of perception. Concept formation. Language development. Development of intelligence. Piaget's theory of cognitive development. Patterning of children's imagination—make believe, dream world, creative activity.

7. Development of emotional behaviour: Bases of emotional behaviour. The developing emotions. The development of emotional control.

8. Development of personality: Biological and cultural determinants of personality. Family influences on personality development. Situational determinants of behaviour.

- 5 Learning. Effects of experience Imprinting Habituation. Classical conditioning and operant conditioning Trial and-error learning Phylogeny of learning Neural mechanisms of learning
- 6 Intelligence The Organization of behaviour The adaptive value of behaviour. The nature of external stimulation The organization of behaviour
7. Complex processes Reasoning Brain function in animals Brains function in man
- 8 Social behaviour and social organization Differentiation of social behaviour. Organisation of an animal society Comparison with other animal societies Socialization The formation of primary social relationships
- 9 'Communication—The language of animals. Communications in bees, birds, mammals Animal language and Human language
- 10 Abnormal behaviour of animals

(iii) Abnormal and Child Psychology

Paper I—Abnormal Psychology

1. Abnormal behaviour in our times Abnormal behaviour as the layman sees it Abnormal behaviour as the scientist sees it
- 2 Development of our modern views Demonology among the ancients Early medical concepts Demonology in the Middle Ages Reappearance of scientific questioning Establishment of mental hospitals Emergence of scientific theories and practices Psychiatry today
3. Personality development and adjustment Determinants of personality Patterning of development Motivation of behaviour Problems of adjustments Reactions to stress Types of psychological stress reactions Excessive stress and decompensation
- 4 Causes of abnormal behaviour, Faulty biological development Faulty psychological development. Sociological factors in faulty development Severe biological, psychological and sociological stress.
- 5 Transient situational personality disorders Traumatic reactions to combat Reactions to civilian catastrophes Reactions to chronic situational stress
- 6 Psychoneurotic disorders The neurotic nucleus Specific reaction patterns and dynamics General etiology of the neuroses Therapy of the neuroses Prognosis for the neuroses
- 7 Psychophysiologic disorders Types of psychophysiologic disorders Dynamics of psychophysiologic reaction Treatment and prognosis
- 8 The functional psychoses Classification and symptoms of psychoses General etiological considerations General prognosis

for psychotic reactions Schizophrenic reaction types Paranoid reactions Affective psychotic reactions Involutional psychotic reactions Distinction between functional and organic psychoses

9 Personality disorders Special symptom reactions Psychopathic reaction The problem of delinquency and crime Deviant sexual behaviour

10 Alcoholism and drug addiction

11 Mental retardation Diagnosis and classification Etiology Clinical types of retardation Retardation and abnormal behaviour Treatment and prevention of mental retardation

12 Diagnosis and therapy Collection and integration of diagnostic information Medical therapy Psychotherapy Major systematic approaches to psychotherapy Evaluation of psychotherapy Socioterapy Trends in the treatment of mental disorders

13 Action for mental health Perspectives on prevention International measures for mental health

Paper II—Child Psychology

1 The practical importance of child psychology Prescientific child psychology Child psychology and scientific process General child study approaches Sources of material of child study Techniques of evaluation in child study

2 General principles of development Directions of development Maturation and learning

3 Biological bases of development significance of biological inheritance Beginnings of life Hereditary transmission Neonatal and first year development Physical growth in childhood Physical growth and behaviour

4 Environmental and cultural influences Prenatal environmental influences Environmental influences and developing child Cultural patterns and developing child

5 Motor growth and development Motor development during prenatal and neonatal periods Maturation and motor control Guiding the development of motor control

6 Cognitive development The development of perception Concept formation Language development Development of intelligence Piaget's theory of cognitive development Patterning of children's imagination—make believe, dream world, creative activity

7 Development of emotional behaviour Bases of emotional behaviour The developing emotions The development of emotional control

8 Development of personality Biological and cultural determinants of personality Family influences on personality development Situational determinants of behaviour

9 Development of social behaviour Nature and need of social behaviour Social behaviour at various age levels Measurement of social maturity

10 Child in the home, school and community

11 Psychology of Adolescence

Special

(Subjects (i) (ii) and (iii) the papers under them as in the B A (General)

(iv) Applied Psychology

Paper I—Psychological Testing and Psychological statistics

1 *Nature and function of measurement in psychology* Need for quantification Levels of measurement Tests vs measurement

2 *Purposes and types of tests* Decisions for which tests are used What is a test Classification of tests

3 *Technical criteria of tests* Validity—meaning of a validity, types of validity Reliability—meaning of reliability, types of reliability coefficients Norms and derived scores

4 *Tests of ability* Short historical survey with critical evaluation of (a) Binet's scales (1937 and 1960) and derivatives, meaning of IQ (b) Wechsler tests meaning of IQ

Performance scales and their relation to scales of the Binet type Differential approaches to mental measurement Brief description of mental ability

5 *Application of tests and measurement* Tests and individual decisions Tests as tools in research on group differences Communicating the test results

6 *Personality Tests* Problems in personality testing Classification of personality test Personality questionnaire Familiarity with projective technique Other means of assessing personality

7 *Frequency distribution* Continuous and discrete variables Drawing up a frequency distribution Frequency distribution and class intervals The frequency polygon The histogram Comparison of frequency polygon and histogram

8 *Measures of central tendency* Mean—the mean calculated from ungrouped scores, the mean calculated from a frequency distribution, the mean as a point Median—calculation of median from a frequency distribution Calculation of median from ungrouped scores Mode When to use the mean, the median and the mode

9 *Variability* The range The quartile deviation The standard deviation Average deviation When to use the different measures of variability

10 *Percentile and percentile ranks* Reading percentile and percentile ranks from ogive The computation of percentile from a frequency

distribution Computing percentile ranks from a frequency distribution Computing percentile rank from ranked data Advantages and limitations of percentile ranks

11 *The normal probability distribution and the normal curve* The normal distribution Table of the normal distribution Applications of the normal probability curve

12 *Correlation* Computing correlation from rank orders Product—moment correlation coefficient Meaning of coefficient of a correlation

13 *Comparing and combining test scores* Converting the scores of different tests into standard deviation units Converting the scores of different tests into percentile ranks T scores

Paper II—Applied Psychology

1 *Introduction* Fields of applied psychology The science and profession of psychology Pseudopsychology

2 *Psychology and industry* Developing a personnel selection programme job analysis, preparation and preliminary tryout of predictors Psychological tests in personnel selection—intelligence tests, special aptitude tests, multiple aptitude batteries achievement tests, personality tests Personal appraisal and biographical data in personnel selection—rating procedures, factors influencing the accuracy of ratings application forms, reference reports, interviewing Personnel development and training—the scope of industrial training, developing a training programme, automated training, management development Morale and motivation—measurement of employee attitude and morale, supervision communication, organization theory

Work methods Work and fatigue, monotony and boredom, work schedules, time and motion study, modern approaches to methods improvement, accident prevention The working environment—illumination, atmospheric conditions, noise, music in industry Human factors in equipment design

3 *Psychology and consumer* Scope and methods of consumer psychology testing the effectiveness of printed advertisement, radio and television research, personal salesmanship, consumer opinion surveys, product testing, economic psychology Emotional and motivational factors in buying—appeal, feeling tone, motivation research, personality studies of consumers, product image

4 *Psychology and counselling* The work of counselling, psychologist varieties of counselling, relation between clinical and counselling psychology, use of tests in counselling, occupational information, evaluating the effectiveness of counselling psychology of vocational choice—Occupation as a way of life, the classification of occupations vocational decisions, vocational development

5 *Psychology and education* The school psychologist, psychology in teacher training, research and development, teaching machines and other technological development

6 *Psychology and law* Testimony and court procedure, lie detection and stressful interrogation, psychological factors in delinquency and crime, psychologist in correctional services, psychologist as expert witness, psychology in the development of laws, psychology in national and international affairs

(v) Experimental Psychology

Paper I—Experimental Psychology (Theory)

1 *Introduction* Experimenting in psychology Experimental psychology as a method Stimuli and responses as variables Experimental control of variables Description and explanation Forms of behaviour studies in Experimental psychology Simple statistical procedures

2 *The Psychophysical methods* The basic problems of psychophysics The basic concept of psychophysics Experimental and quantitative methods in psychophysics Methods of measuring thresholds—absolute and differential The method of average error The judgement of intervals Method of equal appearing intervals Method of paired comparison Psychophysics in daily life psychophysics and social problems

3 *Measuring time for responses* The meaning of reaction time Factors in simple reaction time Current research in reaction time

4 *Cutaneous sense functions* Structure of the skin Types of end organs Pain as a sense Adequate stimulus for pain Temperature sense Receptors for warmth and cold Stimulus and end organs for pressure Kinesthesia Types of end organs for Kinesthesia Proprioceptors Kinesthesia and Attitudes

5 *Factors in perception* Figure and ground Perceptual units Geometric illusions Aftereffects Depth perception Monocular and binocular perception of depth

6 *Bodily changes and Emotion* Galvanic skin resistance and emotional reaction Circulatory changes and emotion Respiration and emotion Temperature changes and emotions Other indices of emotion

7 *The process of attending* Voluntary and involuntary attention. Span of attention or apprehension The tachistoscope Variations in the span apprehension General determinants of attention Fluctuation of attention

8 *Measurement of learning* Definition of basic terms Types of learning Measurement of learning Learning curves

9 *Conditioning* Classical and instrumental conditioning Special problems Known factors that influence conditioning Special problems of control in conditioning experiments

10 *Memorizing—Experiments in verbal learning* Memorizing Factors influencing efficiency in verbal learning Manipulating material to improve efficiency Methods and apparatus Instrumentation Basic variables in human learning Serial position—retroactive and proactive inhibition

11 *Transfer of training* Types of transfer Design of transfer experiments The experimental analysis of transfer

12 *Experiments in exploring manipulating and thinking* Classifying experiments upon thinking Major areas of experiments Measurements of thinking Specific experimental problems

Paper II—Experimental Psychology (Practical including Testing and Elementary Statistics)

1 *Comparison of Performance with and without knowledge of Results*

An introduction to Experimental Design

2 To map the four types of sensory spots (pressure, pain, cold and warmth spots) in a circumscribed area of the skin

3 To measure and map the distribution of colour sensitivity on the retina

4 To verify the two principal laws of stimulus mixture—the law of intermediates and the law of complementaries

5 To measure two types of Visual Acuity (1) Minimum Visible Acuity (2) Minimum Separable Acuity

6 To make a Quantitative study of the error involved in discriminating the length of lines in the Muller Lyer Illusion

7 To make clear the workings of the method of counterbalancing constant errors

8 To determine the upper and lower difference thresholds for discrimination of circle size by the method of constant stimuli

9 To determine the two point threshold for touch (pressure) for various parts of the body

10 To determine the subject's order of preference for the colours presented by using the method of paired comparison

11 To study the acquisition of verbal Association in a substitution test

12 To determine the accuracy for and testimony about social events

13 To find how many dots are reported correctly after a single brief exposure and to become acquainted with the tachistoscope

14 To determine how much material of various types and meanings may be apprehended during a brief exposure

15 To investigate acquisition of skill in a motor performance using stylus maze

16 To observe development of a new spatially coordinated activity, using the mirror drawing technique

- 17 To determine the influence of practice with the right (or preferred) hand upon performance with the left (or non-preferred) hand
- 18 To study the interference of one habit system with another; that is, to observe negative transfer of learning.
- 19 To demonstrate (1) the serial position curve (2) the difference in rate of learning under massed and distributed practice, (3) the difference in serial position effects under massed and distributed practice
- 20 To determine the relative difficulty of memorizing nonsense syllabus and words and to illustrate the procedure of ordinary recall and (2) the recall of Paired Associates
- 21 To investigate the relation between repetition and retention and to observe the recognition method of investigating memory
- 22 To investigate the forgetting process or negative retention and to observe the saving method of studying retention
- 23 To study the development of a concept based upon certain spatial relationship
- 24 To determine how well one can detect hidden knowledge or guilt by the use of the word association technique
- 25 To determine the accuracy with which emotional reactions may be differentiated by means of facial expressions
- 26 To become acquainted with methods of measuring individual differences in intelligence by using Bhatia's Battery of Performance Tests of Intelligence Test
- 27 To measure the IQ of the subject by using the Porteus Maze Test
- 28 To become acquainted with the use and interpretation of results of Tweezer Dexterity Test
- 29 To become acquainted with the use of Otis Self administering Test, Forms A and B
- 30 To draw up frequency table and graphically depict numerical data To compute measures of central tendency, measures of variability and coefficient of correlation

Teaching of Psychology in Indian Universities in M A Classes

The perusal of the following particulars would show at a glance that it is not social psychology alone but some other branches of psychology also which govern and determine social behaviour and initiate, modify and determine the social pattern. The society is made up of individuals and whatever affects individual thinking and behaviour has its cumulative effect on the group and the society and as such we have to include psychology as a

discipline under social sciences. The following would show the scope of teaching covered by Indian universities. Minor details differ from university to university but the basic structure of teaching at the Calcutta university would give a fairly good concept of what is being taught at other universities as well. The following papers are compulsory for M A in psychology

M A and M Sc Examinations

Psychology (A)—Course

Paper I—General Psychology (including History of Psychology)

A brief history of the development of Modern Psychology. The founding of Experimental Psychology. Contributions by Fechner, Helmholtz and Wundt. Contemporary schools of Psychology. Critical study of their view-points.

Psychology as a science. Problems. Technique of psychological investigation. Introspection.

Consciousness. Sensory experience. Mental elements and laws of their combination.

Sensations. Different kinds of sensations. Facts and theories. Measurement of Sensations. Weber Fechner Law. Synaesthesia.

Perception. Visual, auditory and tactual. Space perception. Time perception. Movement perception. Illusions, Hallucination, Perception of Third Dimension. Tonal fusion. Local Sign, Disorder of perception, Aesthetic perception, Apparent movement.

Images and ideas. Eidetic imagery. Critical study of the laws of association. Historical account of the study of memory. Retention, recall and recognition. Forgetting.

Feelings and emotions. Experimental studies. Theories. Sentiments.

Attention. Nature and conditions of attention. Experimental studies. Attention and discrimination. Measurement of attention.

Action. Voluntary and non-voluntary types. Reflexes and conditioned reflexes. Analysis of action consciousness. Reaction time experiments. Volition. Motivation.

Thinking. psychology of thought process. Thought and language. Abstract thought and concepts.

Intelligence. Nature of intelligence. Concept of mental age. Intelligence tests.

Belief. Contents of belief. Factors influencing belief. Belief and action. Belief and mental evaluation. Imagination.

Historical account of the concept of instinct. Theory of relation between instinct and emotion. Modern anti instinctive movement.

Paper II—Genetics and Physiological Psychology

Introduction Origin of life Criteria of life cell

Differentiation of structure Sex determination Neurological foundation of animal behaviour Evolution of nervous system Criteria of mind Evolution of mind Heredity Inheritance Physical basis Eugenics Social Heredity Instincts and intelligence Laws of Heredity Mendelism Recent views

Problems and Field of Physiological Psychology Relation between Body and Mind Basic mechanism of behaviour Nervous system Different parts and functions Spinal cord Medulla Mid brain Cerebellum and Cerebrum Thalamus Hypothalamus Autonomic nervous system Neural basis of emotional responses Neural basis of learning Sense organs and sensations Endocrine organs, their relation to development of personality Conditioned reflexes Sleep Electroencephalograms. Sex organs their function. Sex impulse

Paper III—Child and Educational Psychology

Child Psychology

Problems and methods of Child Psychology Innate mental make up Reflexes, instincts Physical and mental development, their relation Concept of development Development of language and drawing Social development Moral development Growth of reasoning and intelligence Growth of personality Interests, plays, games Emotional behaviour and problems of emotional behaviour, Birth order and mental development

Educational Psychology

Problems and methods Laws of Heredity Inheritance Nature and Nurture Principles of learning Transfer, Fatigue Individual difference Intelligence, Nature Tests, Technique of test construction Educational tests Measurement of personality traits Uses of tests in educational guidance Modern development Education of gifted, backward and other problem children Educational statistics

Paper IV—Social and Abnormal Psychology

Social Psychology

Individual and Social Psychology Social behaviour and social function Consciousness Historical Introduction Social Psychology Anthropology and Sociobiology Problems of Social Psychology Primitive man and his society Groups Different forms Levels of organization Psychology of crowd behaviour Different forms of crowds Leadership The public Attitude Prejudice and customs Laws Government Religion Family as social unit Personality Development factors and principles General ideas about personality tests and measurements

Abnormal Psychology

Historical development Criteria of normality. Description, classification and terminology Some fundamental considerations and conceptions Medical concept Personality types and traits Heredity and Environment Physical and Psychological trauma Dreams. Epilepsy Mental deficiency Causes, conditions Disorders of old age Psychopathic personality Mental diseases of organic origin—Psychosomatic conception of disorders Psychoneuroses and Psychoses Symptoms of the different diseases Methods of treatment Medical Suggestions, Hypnosis, Psychoanalysis

Paper V—Special Paper • One of the following —

(i) *Advanced Abnormal Psychology*

In addition to the syllabus prescribed for Abnormal Psychology in paper IV, students are required to study in details the following

The fundamental principles of Psychoanalysis Theories of Janet, Adler, Jung, Klein Methods and techniques of dream interpretation. Sexual Perversions Different forms Theories, Aetiology of the following diseases—Hysteria, Phobias, Obsession, Compulsion, Schizophrenia Melancholia, Manic depressive Psychosis

(ii) *Advanced Social Psychology*

In addition to the syllabus prescribed for Social Psychology in the compulsory paper IV, students are required to study the following

Dynamics of behaviour. Behaviour patterns Development of behaviour, Child and Adult behaviour

Beliefs Development, change, measurement Motivation, Social situation Aggression, Competition, Friendship, Social groups, Group situation Family Religion Institution Status, Culture, Values, Group activity Morale Leadership Stereotypes, Ideologies, Life space

Environment, Culture conflicts and Tension Research methods Experiments (Planning and Execution) Quantitative methods

Measurement of Public Opinion, Attitudes etc Observational techniques Interview. Personality traits Measurement of Personality

(iii) *Indian Psychology*

Introduction Psychological concepts in general Methods Different views of Manas seat or Adhishthana of Manas functional aspects of Bhedus and Manas Three Avasthas of Manas Three Gunas of Manas. The meaning of evolution in Samkhya

and its characteristic difference from the present day biological concept Evolution of the sense organs, Buddhistic, Samkhya, Charak and Tantric views of sense organs Conception of nerves (Charak, Susruta and Tantras) Inter relation of Buddhi, Ahamkar, Mahat, Manas, Indriyas, Sattwa, Rajas and Tamas

The role of internal organs in the process of perception, negative categories of perception Perception as source of knowledge according to different systems Buddhistic Psychology of ideation feeling and emotion, Rasas (Bharata), Buddhistic Psychology of feeling Raga and Dwesa Yoga psychology, Sex psychology (Vatsyayana), Vrittis in Tantras Concept of insanity in Charaka Comparative study in general of Indian and Modern Psychology

(iv) *Aesthetics*

The subject matter and method of Aesthetics History, Different types of theories (a) Indian conceptions, (b) Hedonistic moral type Plato, Tolstoy, Ruskin, (c) Realistic typical 18th century, (d) Intellectualistic Kant, Hegel (e) Emotionalist Schopenhauer Nietzsche The expressionist theory, Croce Views of Bergson, Bosanquet, etc Physiological conceptions Psychoanalysis and aesthetics Modern Psychological approaches and analysis The aesthetic attitude Experimental Aesthetics Fechner, Wundt, Lipps and others The Sublime and the Ridiculous Primitive art Evolution of art

(v) *Psychology of Industrial Personnel and Industrial Relations*

Individual differences, selection and training of personnel Motivation and incentives in industry Working conditions and job hazards Attitudes and morals Group relations and leadership Employer employee relation Labour legislation and social welfare Organisational structure and communication Trade Unions Collective bargaining Maladjusted workers and supervisors Industrial disputes

(vi) *Psychology of the Handicapped Children*

Historical context—Phases of development Psychological description of different types Methods of study Psychotherapeutics of the handicapped children Evaluation of tests and measurements Rehabilitation programmes Relevant research findings in India and abroad

(vii) *The Psychology of Interpersonal relations*

The human group problems of bounding the field, kinds of groups conceptual system, methods of research The structural patterns of groups origin of structures, formal informal structures, problems of characterizing structures, effects of structures Group standards and pressures Group pressure and attitude change, modification of judgment and distortion, studies in

reference groups and membership groups Social communication, Deviation and rejection ; studies in informal social communication, resistance to change, Cohesiveness Varieties of interpersonal attraction, increasing and decreasing valence, formation of splinter groups, consequences of cohesiveness Individual motives and group goal, Concept of group goal, formation of group goals, effects of group goal, effects of co operation and competition on group processes. Social Power Bases of reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power, experimental studies of these

(viii) *Advanced Experimental Psychology*

Behaviour organisation, problems of motivation motivational variable Learning Learning theory and behaviour, psychophysiology of learning, methods of study Cognitive processes Inductive and deductive concept formation, dynamics of thought, thought and judgement Scientific methods in psychology Independent and dependent variable, experimental and control groups, construction of a problem and meaningful proposition, construction of hypothesis, types and criteria of hypothesis and testing the hypothesis Experimental design Randomized block design, factorial design and latin square design Sampling techniques 'T' distribution, normal distribution, analysis of variance Scaling techniques and types of scales Different forms of scales paired comparison ratio scaling psychological functions, simple logarithmic and complex functions

Papers—VI, VII, VIII Practical

Demonstration of Laws of Colour Mixture and Colour Contrast, After-image Pressure, Pain and Temperature spots, Resonance, Beats Combination of tones Retinal Zones Blind spots Camperimeter and Perimeter Image types

Feelings (a) Method of Impression, (b) Method of Expression

Attention (a) Fluctuation, Masson's disc, (b) Accommodation, (c) Range

Binocular Vision, Third dimension Movement perception. Apparent perception of movement Optical Illusions "Belonging together" character of objects in visual perception Perception of Form, Distance Localisation Aesthesiometric Index. Reaction Times simple and compound

Perception Duration of time intervals (a) Method of direct comparison, (b) Method of reproduction Muscular fatigue Different kinds of Ergograph. Mental fatigue R L and D L values of sensibility in different sense departments Three Psychological methods Gradation, Average error and constant. Memory Span, Retention, interference, Perseveration Retroactive inhibition Learning Scoring and saving methods Forgetting Association Methods of administration and scoring

of various standard tests of intelligence, aptitude and temperament Knowledge of elementary Statistics Measures of Central Tendency and Variability. The Normal Probability Curve, Regression, Correlations, Knowledge of, and ability in using the standard laboratory apparatus is considered at the time of examination

M A and Msc. Examinations

(B)—Course

Theoretical

<i>Paper I</i>	<i>General Psychology</i>
<i>Paper II</i>	<i>Applied Psychology</i>
<i>Paper III</i>	<i>Mental Tests and Psychometrics</i>
<i>Paper IV</i>	<i>Personality Adjustment</i>
<i>Paper V</i>	Any one of the following
	(i) Advanced Industrial Psychology
	(ii) Social Psychiatry
	(iii) Propaganda and Public Opinion
	(iv) Education of Abnormal Children
	(v) Criminology

Practical

Three Papers (4 days)

1 Perception, Attention, Memory, Mental Work, Intelligence Tests Aptitude Tests Personality Tests, Attitude Scales, Special Ability Tests, Educational Tests, Construction and Standardisation of Tests

2. Every candidate is also required to choose, in consultation with the Head of the Department of Psychology, a special problem on which he carries on intensive experimental or field work for at least one year under the guidance of a teacher to be nominated by the Board of Higher Studies in the subject. This piece of special work is examined by the Board of Examiners at the time of the Final Examination

3 Candidates must produce note books of their laboratory and field works which are duly certified by the teachers concerned and are taken into account in estimating the candidates' qualifications

The distribution of marks for the Practical Examination is as follows

Special Work Chosen	50 marks
Laboratory Note Books	20 marks
Other Examinations	200 marks

The limits of the subjects are defined and the books are recommended from time to time by the Board of Higher Studies in Psychology.

From 1960 to 1964, the number of doctoral theses accepted for award of degrees was 45 only. The name of the university and the year are given below :

University	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
1. Agra	—	—	1	4
2. Aligarh	1	1	3	—
3. Banaras	2	3	—	1
4. Baroda	1	1	3	—
5. Gujarat	—	1	—	2
6. Kerala	—	—	1	—
7. Lucknow	3	—	2	—
8. Madras	3	1	1	—
9. Mysore	1	1	—	1
10. Panjab	—	—	1	1
11. Patna	—	1	—	—
12. Poona	—	1	—	—
13. Saugor	—	—	—	1
14. Shri Venkateshwar	—	—	—	1
15. Utkal	—	—	—	1
TOTAL	11	10	12	12

The course of studies prescribed both for B.A. and M.A. have been given in detail so that readers may judge for themselves—whether psychology should be included in the disciplines forming part of social sciences or only social psychology deserves that status. No figures of students offering psychology in B.A. are available. To furnish the strength of students in psychology in M.A. classes, figures for the academic session 1964-65 are given below :

	University departments	Affiliated colleges	Total
Psychology	932	640	1572

As psychology is generally taught to M.A. students in philosophy also, the number of students enrolled in that discipline is also relevant.

	University departments	Affiliated colleges	Total
Indian Philosophy	12	—	12
Philosophy	1,478	354	1,832

CHAPTER XXIV

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Social psychology is for purposes of teaching not an independent discipline, in the Indian universities. It is included as an important study but as a branch of psychology, sociology, industrial sociology or labour welfare. For particulars of syllabi for B.A. please refer to the course of studies provided for psychology, in the preceding chapter.

In the Annamalai University there are eight papers for M.A. in psychology (1) general psychology, (2) social psychology, (3) psychometry, (4) experimental psychology—practical, I (5) psychopathology and mental hygiene, (6) experimental psychology—practical, II and a student has to offer any two of the following subjects (which constitute the 7th and the 8th papers).

(a) psychology and religion, (b) development psychology, (c) applied social psychology, (d) group prejudice and race relations (e) psychological psychology, (f) Industrial and vocational psychology, (g) delinquency and crime.

As we are confining our discussion in this chapter to social psychology, we shall furnish an outline of what is being taught in this subject. The course of studies consists of the following.

The social setting and bases of behaviour Culture social class, human uniformities, social controls, social inter action, cultural diversity

Socialisation and learning Infancy, childhood, adolescence, primary and secondary human nature, reinforcement and extinction

Language In society, in individual, semantics

Methods of research Statistics, sampling, interviewing question and answer design, scaling, reliability and validity, observation, research design

Ethnic groups Racist approach, biological bases, intelligence, cultural differences

The individual and his group Co-acting groups, unperceived group, conformity, competition and co operation, individual vs group re orientation, organised groups tradition, morals belongingness atmosphere, participation, group decision, out-groups

Leaders Enthronement, dethronement, followers, characteristics

Group prejudice. Group origins, individual origins, prejudiced personality, possession and expression, delinquency and crime, victims causes of crime common denominators, uniformities and uniqueness, vogues, fads, rumours, fashions

Public opinion and propaganda Methods of measuring public opinion, problems of analysis of data, the steps in public opinion

survey, social significance of public opinion research, advantages and dangers, the major tools of propaganda, the place of languages, propaganda, propaganda and suggestion, experimental investigations, propaganda prophylaxis, principles of propaganda.

Social conflicts. Strikes, wars, revolutions

The Problems and Scope of Social Psychology :

The following text-books are prescribed 1 Social Psychology by L W Doob 2 Theory and Problems of Social Psychology by D Krech and R W Crutchfield

The following books are recommended for extra reading 1 Social Psychology by H Bonner 2 Readings in Social Psychology by C E T M Newcomb and E L Hartley 3 Social Psychology by Sheriff and Sheriff 4 Social Psychology by B Kuppaswamy

The above gives an outline of teaching in social psychology as a branch of psychology (for M A degree in psychology) We are now giving the course of study prescribed for social psychology paper (under sociology)—for the M A degree of the same (Anna-malai) university.

Social Psychology (Paper III in sociology) The study of the following is prescribed

- (i) The field and forces of inter action between the individual society and culture
- (ii) The agencies of mass impression, such as the press, radio, movie, newspaper
- (iii) Collective behaviour, crowds, mobs, audiences public, fads, fashions, crazes, organised and unorganised mass movements, stereotypes, fantasies, psychic contagion
- (iv) Attitudes, opinions, beliefs prejudices, social distance, conservatism, opposition to change, caste and religious differences
- (v) Group dynamics influence of leaders, experts, heroes, charlatans.
- (vi) Group unity : means of social control, propaganda, public opinion, custom, tradition, law, composition and organisation of associations, strategies United action, psychology of international relations.
- (vii) Trends in control of mass mind

The following books are prescribed for reading (1) Social Psychology by Kimhal Young, (2) Brave New Worlds Revisited by Aldous Huxley, (3) Brain Washing by Edward Hunter, (4) Social Psychology by H. S Sprott, (5) The Hidden Persuaders by R. Packard, (6) The Eavesdroppers by Schwar Knowston Deah, (7) Introduction to Social Psychology by B Kuppaswamy, (8) Social Psychology by V V Alkolkar, (9) Hindu Social Organisation by P. H Prabhu

Social psychology is not an independent discipline in the teaching at the Indian universities But in the scheme of examinations, one paper is earmarked for it This is so for the M.A.

degree in psychology It is so, under sociology also But in the curricula of some universities, social psychology is prescribed as one of the subjects for M A degree in subjects other than psychology or sociology

For example in the Allahabad University the course of studies for M A in Political Science provides for papers I and II which are compulsory Besides these there are groups—each group having three papers and a student has to offer one of the groups Group C consists of three papers (i) social anthropology, (ii) social psychology (iii) social philosophy

The books for study for social psychology are 1 McDougall The Group Mind 2 McDougall Social Psychology 3 Wallas, Graham Human Nature in Politics 4 Ginsberg Social Psychology 5 Bernard L L Introduction to Social Psychology 6 Rivers W H R Psychology and Politics 7 Thoiless, R H General and Social Psychology 8 Lapicke, R T and Farnsworth Social Psychology

It is expected that in course of time like industrial sociology, social psychology also would become a full fledged independent discipline, i.e. M A degree in social psychology will be introduced But the inherent nature of the discipline is such that it will continue to be an inter disciplinary area Sociological studies as well as those pertaining to social or cultural anthropology and the investigations of bio social—both biological and social factors will continue to be the base on which social psychology rests The effects of heredity and environment as those of ethnic groups and differences in socio economic classes and the conditions of labour, employment administrative and political back ground broaden the scope of social psychology to such an extent that it has always to lean on other disciplines such as economics and political science But we generally accept a discipline as independent, when an M A degree is awarded for its study That stage has not yet arrived in India

The U G C had a survey made of about two dozen universities in regard to the course of studies prescribed for B A and M A and the position in regard to social psychology was as follows

(a) Social psychology and or industrial psychology is one of the compulsory papers for B A in sociology in Andhra, Marthwada and S V Vidyapeeth (b) Social Psychology is one of the compulsory papers in B A (Hons) sociology, in Baroda, Bhagalpur, Lucknow and S V Vidyapeeth (c) Social psychology is one of the compulsory papers in M A in sociology in Agra, Andhra, Annamalai Baroda, Bhagalpur, Gujarat, Nagpur and Poona

In India, there are 68 universities some are engineering or agricultural, but those teaching social science include social psychology as part of sociology, psychology industrial sociology, criminology, political science economics, cultural anthropology and allied disciplines

SECTION IV : SOCIO-CULTURAL SCIENCES

CHAPTER XXV

SOCIOLOGY

Sociology is a very comprehensive discipline embracing the study of many aspects of social life and matters connected with it. Even at the B A stage, the curricula of Indian universities cover various aspects of it, but while some have included a particular branch/es of study, others have prescribed quite different fields of study—but all these nevertheless are the branches of sociology. The different topics which are being taught in the B A classes of Indian universities may be briefly described as follows

1 Elements of sociology (also described as principles of sociology) 2—social problems 3—social problems in India 4—Indian sociology and social institutions 5—comparative social institutions 6—social philosophy 7—social structure 8—social organisation 9—applied sociology 10—social control/evolution and change 11—cultural anthropology 12—social anthropology 13—general anthropology 14—industrial and/or social psychology 15—social work with special reference to legislation 16—elementary research methods 17—modern reform movements in India

To give an idea how universities in India have prescribed different topics for teaching in sociology, we are giving below the names of some of the universities and the topics they teach under sociology. A survey of the following universities was made by the U G C. Agra, Andhra, Annamalai, Baroda, Bhagalpur, Bombay, Gorakhpur, Gujarat, Jabalpur, Lucknow, Madras, Marathwada, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, Poona, Rajasthan, S N D T, Women's S V Vidyapeeth and Vikram

The survey disclosed the following position*

B A

1 In B A there are four papers in sociology in each of the following universities. Agra, Andhra, Annamalai, Gorakhpur, Lucknow, Marathwada, Rajasthan, Vikram, Jabalpur has 5 papers

2 The following universities have three papers. Bhagalpur, Nagpur, Osmania (2 compulsory and 1 optional), Patna, and S V Vidyapeeth

3. The following universities have two papers each. Bombay, Gujarat, Madras, Mysore, Poona

4 Baroda and S N D T Women's have only 1 paper each

*The source of information in this and succeeding pages is P U G C 24 (N)/700.

All the universities teach elements of sociology but in regard to contents of papers, there is wide divergence

Agra—(i) principles/elements of sociology, (ii) Indian sociology and social institutions

Andhra—(i) as in Agra, (ii) social problems (iii) industrial and/or social psychology (iv) social work with special reference to legislation and administration (v) social organisation.

Annamalai—(i) as in Agra, (ii) Indian sociology and social institutions, (iii) modern reform movements in India, (iv) social problems in India

Bhagalpur—(i) and (ii) as in Agra.

Delhi—(i) and (ii) as at Agra and social structure.

Gorakhpur—(i) as in Agra, (ii) comparative social institutions, (iii) social problems, (iv) social control/evolution and change.

Gujrat—(i) and (ii) as in Agra

Marathwada (i) and (ii) as in Agra, (iii) comparative social institutions, (iv) industrial and/or social psychology.

Mysore—(i) as in Agra, (ii) social problems.

Bombay—(i) cultural anthropology, (ii) social control/evolution and change

Nagpur—(i) as in Agra, (ii) social anthropology (iii) social control/evolution and change.

Osmania—(i) as in Agra, (ii) social anthropology.

Patna—(i) as in Agra, (ii) elementary research methods, (iii) general anthropology.

Poona—(i) as in Agra, (ii) cultural anthropology.

Rajasthan—(i) and (ii) as in Agra, (iii) social problems, (iv) social anthropology.

S N D T Women's (i) as in Agra.

S.V. Vidyapeeth—(i) Indian sociology and social institutions, (ii) industrial and social psychology, (iii) social philosophy.

Vikram—(i) as in Agra.

Baroda—(i) as in Agra.

Lucknow—(i) applied sociology.

B. A. Hons. (Sociology)

The pattern of compulsory and optional papers is as follows.

B. A. Hons Baroda (6c) Bhagalpur (6c), Bombay (3c), Delhi (8c), Gujarat (6c—2 optional out of 8), Lucknow (5c), Mysore (4c), Nagpur (5c), Osmania (4c—1 optional out of 3), Patna (3c—3 optional out of 6), S. N. D. T. (6c); S. V. Vidyapeeth (7c).

*c—indicates compulsory.

For B A (Hons) the compulsory papers in the universities surveyed are given below

(1) *General sociology*—Baroda, Bhagalpur, Delhi, Gujarat, Mysore, Nagpur, Patna, S N D T Women's and Shri S V Vidyapeeth

2 *Social and cultural/general anthropology*—Bhagalpur, Bombay, Gujarat, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, S N D T Women's and S V Vidyapeeth

3 *Indian sociology and social institutions*—Baroda, Bhagalpur, Delhi, Mysore, Osmania, S N D T, Women's and S V Vidyapeeth

4 *Comparative social institutions*—Baroda, Delhi, Lucknow, Nagpur, S N D T Women's and S V Vidyapeeth

5 *Social welfare and planning*—Bhagalpur, Bombay, Gujarat, Lucknow, and S N D T Women's

6 *History of social thought*—Bhagalpur, Delhi, Lucknow, Nagpur, and S V Vidyapeeth

7 *Social psychology*—Baroda, Bhagalpur, Lucknow, and S V Vidyapeeth

8 *Sociological theories and current social problems*—Mysore, Nagpur and Osmania

9 *Sociology of kinship*—Baroda and Delhi

10 *Sociology of economic institutions*—Delhi

11 *Social biology*—S V Vidyapeeth

12 *Society and social evolution*—Bombay

13 *Social research*—Lucknow

14 *Field work methods and monograph*—Delhi

15 *Urban sociology*—Osmania

16 *Essay*—Delhi

17 *Social structure and social stratification*—Delhi

18 *Sociological thought*—Delhi

19 *Elementary research methods*—Patna

Compulsory papers in M A (Sociology)

Analysis of syllabi of some universities by the U G C

1 *Agra* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social psychology, (5) social research and investigations

2 *Andhra* (1) Social psychology, (2) social research and investigations, (3) social and cultural anthropology, (4) history of social thought, (5) elements of sociology, (6) social structure and change

- 3 *Annan alai* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian rural sociology, (3) social psychology, (4) history of social thought, (5) field work methods and technique, (6) foundations of Indian culture, (7) contemporary world
- 4 *Baroda* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social planning and structure (5) social psychology, (6) essay on research report, (7) personality and social system
- 5, *Ehagalpur* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social psychology, (5) social research and investigations, (6) essay on research report, (7) history of social thought
- 6 *Bombay* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) social research and investigations, (4) culture, religion and civilisation
- 7 *Delhi* (1) advanced sociology, (2) social planning and structure, (3) culture, religion and civilisation, (3) modern field work monographs
- 8 *Gorakhpur* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) social planning and structure, (4) social research and investigations
- 9 *Gujarat* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems (3) social planning and structure, (4) social psychology, (5) culture religion and civilization, (6) essay on research report, (7) social biology
- 10 *Jabalpur* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social planning and structure, (5) social research and investigations
- 11 *Mysore* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social planning and structure, (5) culture, religion and civilisation, (6) field work methods and techniques
- 12 *Nagpur* (1) advanced sociology, (2) social psychology, (3) social research and investigations, (4) essay on research report, (5) social and cultural anthropology
- 13 *Osmania* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems (3) social and cultural anthropology, (4) history of social thought (5) applied sociology (6) applied anthropology
- 14 *Punjab* (1) advanced sociology, (2) social planning and structure, (3) history of social thought, (4) modern field work and monographs, (5) logic and scientific methods
- 15 *Patna* (1) social research and investigation, (2) history of social thought, (3) systematics of sociology, (4) historical sociology, (5) Indian social thought

16 *Poona* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) social psychology, (4) culture, religion and civilisation

17, *Rajasthan* (1) advanced sociology, (2) Indian sociological problems, (3) rural/urban sociology, (4) social and cultural anthropology, (5) field work methods and techniques

18 *S N D T Womens* (1) advanced sociology, (2) social planning and structure, (3) culture religion and civilisation, (4) archaeology and ethnology

Optional Papers in M A

1	<i>Urban/rural sociology</i>	Andhra, Annamalai (Indian urban sociology), Bombay, Gorakhpur, Jabalpur, Osmania, Punjab, Patna and Rajasthan
2	<i>Social psychology</i>	Bombay, Jabalpur, Osmania, Panjab and S N D T Women's
3	<i>Industrial sociology</i>	Agra, Andhra, Annamalai, Bhagalpur, Bombay and Gujarat
4	<i>Criminology/penology</i>	Agra, Andhra, Gorakhpur, Jabalpur, Nagpur
5	<i>Monographs/essay</i>	Agra, Baroda, Gujarat, Rajasthan
6	<i>Political sociology</i>	Agra, Baroda, Gujarat, and Rajasthan
7	<i>Social welfare</i>	Gorakhpur, Osmania
8	<i>Population problems/ demography</i>	Annamalai, Nagpur, Panjab, and Patna
9	<i>Social problems</i>	Gujarat, Nagpur and Panjab
10	<i>Social pathology</i>	Bhagalpur
11	<i>Marriage and family</i>	Nagpur
12	<i>Interaction process in small groups</i>	Baroda
13	<i>Sociology of values</i>	Baroda and Gorakhpur
14	<i>Social anthropology</i>	Bhagalpur, Jabalpur and Patna
15	<i>Community in modern society</i>	Gorakhpur and Jabalpur
16	<i>Social and cultural anthropology</i>	Annamalai
17	<i>Social institutions/social theory</i>	Gujarat and Nagpur

18	<i>History of sociology</i>	Nagpur
19	<i>Civilisation and culture</i>	Bombay
20	<i>Sociology and kinship</i>	Delhi
21	<i>African social institutions</i>	Delhi
22	<i>Social change in Africa</i>	Delhi
23	<i>Social statistics</i>	Gorakhpur
24	<i>General psychology</i>	S N D T Women's
25	<i>Indian history and Greek Roman or European history</i>	S N D T Women's
26	<i>Principles of economics and Indian economics</i>	S N D T Women's
27	<i>Applied sociology</i>	Bhagalpur
28	<i>Social administration</i>	Osmania
29	<i>Educational sociology</i>	Osmania
30	<i>Indian anthropology and field work</i>	Osmania
31	<i>Field work</i>	Rajasthan
32	<i>Indian ethnography</i>	Patna
33	<i>Sociology of small group</i>	Patna
34	<i>Planned social change</i>	Patna
35	<i>Planning in India</i>	Patna
36	<i>Indian social stratification</i>	Patna
37	<i>Community development and welfare/panchayat raj</i>	Annamalai and Nagpur

Pottern of Distribution of Compulsory and Optional Papers M A (i Sociology) Agra (6c 3/6 optional i.e., a candidate has to take in addition to 6 compulsory papers 3 optional papers out of 6), Andhra (7c 1/4-o), Annamalai (7c-1/4 o), Baroda (8c), Bhagalpur (7c 4-o), Bombay (6c 2 o) Calcutta (6c+2/8 o) Delhi (6c+2/4-o) Gorakhpur (5c-7 o), Gujarat (8c) Jubalpur (7c 1/4 o), Mysore (8c), Nagpur (5c 3/7 o) Osmania (6c 2/6 o) Panjab (6c 4 o) Patna (including thesis which is equivalent to 2 papers (6c 2/8 o), Poona (4c-4-o), Rajasthan (7c 1/3 o), S N D T (6c 2/8 o) *

In order to give a complete idea of what is being taught in sociology, for the M A degree, it is necessary to give the details of course of studies prescribed. As stated earlier, in this limited

*c compulsory o—optional

space we cannot even give a bird's eye view of the courses prescribed by the various Indian universities, but acquaint our readers with the general pattern

The Agra University is one of the important universities and till recently 144 colleges were affiliated to it. This university has also as one of the constituting units 'The Institute of Social Sciences' which specializes in social science subjects and as such what is taught in M A classes here in sociology would represent the contents fairly well

Sociology

There are eight papers. A candidate is required to take four papers, excluding Project Work in the Previous and the remaining three and Project Report in the Final Examination

Paper I *Advanced Sociological Theory*

Nature and scope of Sociology, Social structure Social system, Social Action Traditional and open Society, Function and Dysfunction Formal and systematic approach, Social change, Sociology of Religion, Sociology of knowledge and values

Books recommended

Lundberg *Foundations of Sociology*, MacIver and Page, *Society* Merton (ed) *Sociology Today*, Gurwitsch and Moore, *Twentieth Century Sociology*, Parsons T H *Essay in Sociological Theory*, Mannheim Karl, *Sociology of Knowledge*, Mukerjee, R K, *Social Structure of Values*, Brinton T B *Sociology* Satyavrata Vidyalankar *Samaja Shastra Ke Maolotatwa and Sanskritika Manava Shastra*

Paper II *Indian Social Institutions*

Varnashram, Purushartha Doctrine of Karma, Dwija, Savarn and Antyaja, Origin and function of Caste, Joint Family, Hindu Marriage Polyandry Marriage amongst Muslims Impact of Hindu and Muslim institutions, Reformist movement in India, Village Panchayats and Rural change, Tribal institutions and welfare

Books recommended

O'Malley *India's Social Heritage*, Prabhu P H *Hindu Social Organisation*, Kapadia, K M *Marriage and Family in India* Keikar, S V *History of the Caste System*, Hutton *Caste in India* Shastri, H D *Hindu Parivara Mimansa* Motwani, K *Manushastra* Dube, S C *Indian Village*, Singh Mohinder *The Depressed Class*, Majumdar, D N *Tribe in Transition*, Majumdar, D N *Races and Culture*, Saksena R N *Social Economy of a Polyandrous People*, Srivastava, S K *The Thorus (A Study in Culture Dynamics)* *Tribal Welfare in India* (Government of India)

Paper III *History of Social Thought*

Comte, Pareto, Durkheim, Veblen, Karl Marx, Max-Weber, Sorokin, Parsons and Gandhi

Books recommended

Sorokin *Contemporary Sociological Theories*, Barnes *Introduction to the History of Sociology*, Parsons *The Structure of Social Action*, Barnes and Booker *Social Thought from Lore to Science*, Gurwitsch and Moore *Twentieth Century Sociology*, D'Awam G N *Political Philosophy of Gandhi*

Paper IV Social Psychology

Scope of Psychology, Psychological factors in Social and Cultural growth, Factors in human learning, Instinct, Imitation, Suggestion, Sympathy, Feeling and Emotions Individuals and Society, Functions of Reason and Will in individuals and Society, Personality and Social relations Individual Behaviour and Social Attitudes, Mass Behaviour, Crowd Psychology and Group Mind, Leadership, Tradition, Custom, Law and Fashions, Public Opinion, its formation and expression, Propaganda and the Press

Books recommended

MacDougal *Social Psychology*, MacDougal *Group Mind*, Young, Kimball *Hand Book of Social Psychology* (Kegan Paul) Young Kimball *Personality and Problems of Adjustment*, Campbell, C M *Human Personality and the Environment* (New York) Linton *The Study of Man* (New York) Julian Blackburn *Psychology and Social Pattern* (Kegan Paul) Lebon *The Crowd*, La Piec *Collective Behaviour* (New York), Graham Wallas *Human Nature in Politics*, Lippman *Public Opinion*, Wickham Steed *The Press*, Mukerji and Sen Gupta *Introduction to Social Psychology*, Padma Kumari Samoj Manovigyan Tomar *Sanskrit Manovigyan*

Paper V Social Survey and Investigation

Nature of Social Phenomena Need of Objective and Scientific Study Difficulties, Theory of Social Research, Means and methods of social studies Technique of social investigation and research Elementary Statistics, Theory of Sampling, Collection and handling of Data Sources of information Official Records and Field Work Preparation of the Questionnaire and Schedules, Essentials of a Social investigator, The interview, Tabulation and Analysis Sociometric methods, Presentation of data Charts and Diagrams Preparation of Report Measurement of Institutional and Social behaviour Mass Observation

Books recommended

George A Lundberg *Social Research* (Longmans Green and Co), Young *Scientific Social Survey and Research* (Prentice Hall New York), Tippett *Methods of Statistics*, Rhodes

Elements of Statistics, Luther Fry- *The Technique of Social Investigation* (Harper), Rowntree B Seedohm *Poverty and Progress—A Second Survey of York* (Longmans), Bartlett *The Study of Society* Paper VI and VII Any two of the following

1 Rural Sociology

Characteristics of Rural Society The Village Community, Village life in India and the West, Village in Transition, Indian Rural Problems, Co operative Movement, Community Development, Rural Analysis

Books recommended

Dubey *India Village*, Duhey *India's Change in Villages*, Majumdar *Rural Profile*, Nanavati and Anjaria *Indian Rural Problems* Malaviya *Village Panchayats*, Evaluation Reports Rural Credit Survey Reports (Reserve Bank of India)

2 Population Problems and Public Health

Population theories Malthus and after, Optimum Population, Standard of Living, Poverty and Progress, The problems of over population and under population, Population problem in India, Checks on population, Problems of Public Health, Public Health Services in India and abroad, Public Health administration and work done by Public and Private institutions Infectious diseases, Child and Maternity Welfare, Health and Nutrition

Books recommended

Carr Saunders, Marshall and Others *Population Problems*, Carr Saunders *World Population—Past Growth and Present Trends* (Oxford), Isaac F *Economics of Migration* (Kegan Paul), Kuczyński *Balance of Births and Deaths* (New York), Gyao Chand *India's Teeming Millions* Mukerji, Radha Kamal *Food Planning for Four Hundred Millions*, Chatterji D N *Food and Nutrition in India*, Ross *Standing Room only*, Government of India Reports on Health and Diet, Reports of Health Survey and Development Committee (Bhore Committee Report)

3 Social Pathology

Crime and Society, Social Disorganisation, Social Change and Disequilibrium, Causes for Social disorganisation, Disorganisation of the individual and family, Law and the Criminal, Influence of Economic and Social factors on crime, Treatment of the criminal Theories of Punishment, Prison Reform, Juvenile Delinquency

Books recommended

Elliot and Merrill *Social Disorganisation* (New York), Hall, J *Theft, Law and Society*, Karl Mannheim *Man and Society in an Age*

3. The formal and systemic theories of Tonnies, Simmel, Sorokio and Becker

4. The Marxist Sociological Theories The concept of dialectical materialism, Class relationship, Philosophy of History, Social Change and Social revolution The impact of Marxist thought on Contemporary Sociology

5. Sociology of knowledge.

6. Recent trends in Sociological Theory

Reading List.

Parsons T and Shils, E *Towards a General Theory of Actions*, Lianiecki, F *Cultural Sciences*, Von Wiese, L and Becker, H. *Systemic Sociology*, Homans, G C. *The Human Group*, Sorokin, P A *Society, Culture and Personality*, Merton, R K : *Social Theory and Social Structure*, Nadel, S F *The Theory of Social Structure*, Parsons, T *The Structure of Social Action*, Weber, Max. *Theory of Economic and Social Organisation*, Henderson, L T. *Pareto's General Sociology*, Hook Sydney *Materialism* (in En. Sec Sco), Lenin V I *Marx, Engels, Marxism*, Satyavata Vidyalkar *Somaya Ke Moolatattva and Sanskritika Manavashostra*.

General Reference

(Relevant portions to be selected for study)

Shils, E A *The Present Situation in American Sociology* Merton, R K (ed) *Sociology To day*, Gittler, J B (ed) *Review of Sociology*, Sorokio, P A. *Fads and Foibles in Sociology*, Sorokin, P A. *Contemporary Sociological Theories*, Gurvitch, G and Moore, W E (ed) *Twentieth Century Sociology*, Part II Barnes, H F (ed) *An Introduction to the History of Sociology* Gillin, J P (ed) *For a Science of Social Man* Laski, A J *Communism*

Paper II Social Institutions

- (A) The Community Physical Configuration, Community sentiment Community and intercommunal differences
- (B) Class and Caste The Class Principle, Class Attitude and Conscience, Class and social structure, Caste, its origin and functions Dynamism of Caste System and its future
- (C) The Family Sociological significance of the Family The Family Today, The Family and the State. Joint Family and its Future
- (D) The Primary Group and the Large Scale Associations, The Primary Group—From the Primary Group to the Great Associations

- (E) **Associations and Interests** Interest and the Basic of organisations Associations classified by interests Conflicts of interests within Associations
- (F) **Political and Economics Institutions** — The State as a Form of Association, The Function of State in Society, The Distinctive Character of Economic organisation, The Economic System, Occupational Association

Books Recommended

R M Mac Iver *Elements of Social Science*, H A Miller *Races, Nations and Classes* J K Folson *The Family*, M F Nimkoff *The Family*, Kapadia *Marriage and Family in India* C H Cooley *Social Organisation*, Part I, R M Mac Iver *The Modern State*, H E Barnes *Sociology and Political Theory*, T H Marshall *Class Conflict and Social Stratification*, Thorstain Veblen *The Theory of Leisure Class* G D H Cole *Studies in Class Structure*, G S Ghurye *Caste and Class in India* J H Hutton *Caste in India* (2nd ed.), W E Ogburn and M F Nimkoff *Technology and the Changing Family*, Graham Wallas *Human Nature in Politics*, John Strachey *Contemporary Capitalism*, Georges Friedmann *Industrial Society* (English translation, G'aencoe, The Free Press), D M Goodfellow *Principles of Economic Sociology*, E Durkheim *The Division of Labour in Society*, C D Forde *Habitat Economy and Society*, H E Barnes *Social Institutions*

Paper III *Indian Social System (Varnasharmi) and Sociological Concepts*

- A *Sociological Concepts* of the Indian Social System Varna ashrama, Purushartha Rina, Svadharma, Lokasangraha, Karma, Moksha, Daan
Jati, Gotra Vansha, Kul, Kutumb and Pariwar, Dwija, Savarana and Antyay, Occupational caste cluster, Shraddha, Pinda Streedhan, Dattaka, Saptapadi, Sambha, Gita, Samasthita
- B *Development of the Social System through the following stages* —
- (1) Evolution in the Ancient Period upto the Synthesis in Geeta, Smritis and Arthashastra
 - (2) Constructive reinterpretation (Bhashyas or Smritis) during culture expansion and integration
 - (3) Trends of mobility under the impact of Islam and decline of Kshatriya Brahman socio occupational dominance, New socio occupational mobility, Bhakti schools and liberal trends in religion and custom
 - (4) Trends of Social Reform and Revival under the impact of Industrialization and Liberal Democracy
 - (5) Sarvodaya Social Theory and Movement

Reading List

Prabhu, P H *Hindu Social Organisation*, Kapadia, K M *Marriage and Family in India*, Karve, I *Kinship Organisation in India* Karandikar, S V : *Hindu Exogamy*, Ketkar S *History of the Caste System*, Karve, I . *What is Caste* (Economic Weekly, 4 articles January, March, July, 1958 , January, 1959) Ghurye, G S *Caste and Class in India*, Hutton, J *Caste in India* Sharma, Ram *Shudras in Ancient India*, Singh, Mobinder *The Depressed Classes*, Srinivas, M N *The Dominant Caste in Rampura*, *American Anthropologist*, Vol 61, No 1, Moore, Barrington (ed) ' *The Western Impact upon the Structure of Authority in Indian Society*, Bhawe, Vinoba *Bhoodan Yagna Series*, 1-6 *Social Legislation* (Government of India), Sbastry, H D *Hindu Parivar Meemansa*

Paper IV *Social Psychology including Experimental Psychology*

- 1 Present day Social Psychology as a branch of Social Science
- 2 Contemporary systematic positions in Social Psychology (i) Stimulus Response, Contiguit and Reinforcement Theory, (ii) Cognitive Theory, (iii) Psycho analytic Theory, and Application in Social Sciences, (iv) Field Theory, (v) Role Theory
- 3 Individual in Social context—Social Motivation, Perception of people Learning Socialization and Persooality Development
4. Structure of Social Groups and Interactions—(i) Group—structure—properties, formation and functioning of group , (ii) Leadership Power and Communication , (iii) Formation of Social Norms , (iv) Inter group Relations, (v) Mass Phenomena , (vi) Beliefs and Attitude—their formation and change , (vii) Ego Involvements and Reference Groups, (viii) Culture and behaviour, (ix) National character and Group Problem Studies and process (experimental studies)

5 *Experimental Psychology**Experiments*

- 1 Group Effect on performance (F H Allport)
- 2 Experiment on Social Norm (Sherif)
- 3 Group Norm and After effect of seen movement (Sinha)
- 4 Social Influence on Level of Aspiration (Volkmano)
- 5 Dominant Value and Perceptual sensitization.
- 6 Rumour Experiment—Social Transmission of Verbal Material (Bartlett , Allport and Postman)
- 7 Social Transmission of Visual Material (Bartlett)
- 8 Experiment on prestige suggestion

Note —The maximum marks for theory paper are 60 and for Practical work 40

Reading List

Sherif, M and Sherif C *An Outline of Social Psychology*.

Kretch, D and Crutchfield, R S . Theory and Problems in Social Psychology.

Asch, S : Social Psychology.

Lindzey, G. (ed) . Handbook of Social Psychology, Vols I and II.

Mc Coby, E., Newcoms and Hartley (ed) Readings in Social Psychology.

General Reference .

(Relevant portions to be selected for study)

Boring, E. : History of Experimental Psychology

Boring, E . Langfield and Weld . Foundations of Psychology

Gillin (ed) . For a Science of Social Man.

Kluckhohn, C Murray, M. and Sneider (ed) Personality in Nature, Culture and Society

Hall and Lindzey, G (ed) : Theories of Personality.

Monroe, Ruth : Schools of Psycho-analytic Thought

Paper V. *Social Research and Investigation*

A Nature of Scientific Research—Science—Pure and Applied ; Values—Concepts , Prediction ; Research and Theory. Major Steps in Scientific Research—Selection and Formulation of a Problem Research Designs—Exploratory, Diagnostic and Descriptive, Experimental

B Social Surveys—Nature, Evolution and Planning of Surveys Sampling—Basic idea, Types of Sample Design.

Data Collection—(i) Use of Documents (esp Personal documents), (ii) Observational Method, (iii) Questionnaires and Schedules—Sociometric Method Scaling Techniques Rating Scales (iv) Interview. Processing the Data—Editing, Coding, Tabulating

C. Content Analysis . Panel Study. Action Research . Area Research ; Cross-Cultural Method

Reading List .

Jahoda, M. Dentch and Cook : Research Methods in Social Relations, Vols. I and II

Fastinger, L and Katz, D Research Methods in Behavioural Science.

Gorde, W. and Aatt, P. : Methods in Social Research

Madge, J. : The Tools of Social Science

Moser, C A. . Survey Methods in Social Investigation.

Young, P. : Scientific Social Surveys and Research

Lindzey G. (ed) . Hand-book of Social Psychology, Vol I, Part III.

Lazassfeld, P and Rosenberg, H (ed) *The Language of Social Research* (select)

Wallis and Roberts *Statistics A New Approach* (select)

General reference

(Relevant portions to be selected for study)

Rose, A *Theory and Method in Social Sciences* (ch 7, 8, 14, 15)

Hyman, H H *Survey Design and Analysis*

Khan, R L and Cannel, C. F L *Dynamics of Interviewing*

Chapin, F S *Experimental Social Design*

Steward, I *Area Research*

Parten, M *Survey Polls and Samples*

Paper VI General Sociology

Nature and scope of Sociology and its relation to other social sciences, Nature of society and structure, Individual and Society, Social Interaction, Institutions and Association, Groups, Group Behaviour, Group and Personality, Culture and Personality, Socialization, Social Institutions, Tradition, Custom and Mores, Religion, Social Change, Social Control, Social Disorganization.

Books recommended

Mac Iver and Page *Society*, Ogburn and Nimcoff *A Hand book of Sociology* Gillin and Gillin *Cultural Sociology*, Merton, R. K *Essays in Social Theory and Structure*, Gurwitsch and Moore *Twentieth Century Sociology*, Sprott, W J H *Human Group*, Homans, George C *The Human Group*, Kluckhohn Murray *Personality in Nature, Society and Culture*

Paper VII One optional paper to be offered from the following —

- 1 Industrial Sociology
- 2 Indian Rural Society
- 3 Political Sociology
- 4 Criminology
- 5 Social Anthropology

1 Industrial Sociology

The concept and development of Industrial Sociology in India and West Its relation with other social sciences. Sociological theory and industry

Productives system Domestic crafts, guild putting out training and production centres Factory small scale and large scale. Social systems and their relations with the industrial systems. Effects of production, efficiency, industrial and public relations. Development of industrial systems in India — Sole Proprietorship, Partnership, Joint Stock Companies Trusts Monopolies Corporations, Public, Private and Co operative sectors.

Industrial Policy in the Five Year Plans—Industrial estates and rural industrialisation, place of small scale industries in our national economy—analysis of Gandhian approach Industrial legislation

Role of co-operation in small scale industries schemes in U P, Social Structure of industries level of management and hierarchical positions Relations of worker with different levels of management Mass society framework Multiple power groups, Leadership in factory

Theories of labour movement, History and development of trade unionism in India Nature and significance of labour legislation in India

Social psychological processes in industrial relations incentives and motivations rationalisation and automation

Text books recommended

Industrial Sociology by E V Schoeider, McGraw Hill Book Co 1957

New Foundations for Industrial Sociology by M J Vincent and Jackson Mayoos D Van Nostrand Co, Inc, New York, 1959

Industry and Society by William F White, McGraw Hill, New York, 1946

Industrial Relation and Social Order by W E Moore, Macmillan Co, New York, 1951

Industrial Psychology by Joseph Tiffin, Prentice Hall 1952

Sociology of Industrial Relations by John B Knox Random House, Inc, New York, 1956

Reader in Bureaucracy edited by Robert K Merton, Free Press 1952

Social Theory and Social Structure by Robert K Merton, Free Press, 1949

Human Relations in Industry by Richard D Ervin Home Book III, 1965

Reference Books

Theory of Leisure Class by Veblen

Religion and the Rise of Capitalism by H R Tawneys, 1926

Protestant Ethics and Spirit of Capitalism by Max Weber

Technic and Civilization by Lewis Mumford

Industrialization and Social Change by Meyers

Industrial Labour in India by Saran and Singh

Trade Unionism in India by A S Mathur and J S Mathur

Indian Working Class by R K Mukerjee

White Collar by C Wright Mills

- Industrial Psychology by Vities, W W Norton and Co , New York, 1929
- Automation, The Advent of the Automatic Factory by John Diefold Von Nostrand Co , Princeton 1952
- Industrial Problems in India by V V Giri
- The Dynamics of Industrial Democracy by Clinton S Golden and Herold J Rottenberg, Haper and Bros, 1952
- The Social System of a Modern Factory by W L Wanner and J O Low, 1947
- The Lonely Crowd by David Reisman
- Power Elite by C Right Mills, Oxford University, New York, 1956.
- The Mas Society by Alexander
- Pattern of Industrial Bureaucracy by Arvin Gouldner, Free Press 1959.
- Human Relations in a Changing World by Leighton, F P , Dutton Co , 1949
- Technology and Society by Cosen S McKee and Lausa Rosen Macmillan Co , New York, 1941.
- Money and Motivation by William White, Hemper and Bros , 1955.
- Pattern for Industrial Race by William White, 1951.

2 Political Sociology

Concept of Political Sociology. The significance of Political Sociology in General Sociology Major Political system in relation to general working of social systems Historical growth of Political Sociology

Concept of State and various theories of State, Major functions of Government in traditional and advanced societies Cultural basis of political authority Economic, ethnic, religious and class representation in political institution The pressure groups, the internal structure and dynamics of political organization in traditional and pluralistic society Political leadership and voting behaviour Public opinion and propaganda System of political stratification and bureaucratization The formal and informal organization of legislative bodies Power structure The structure of the elite Democratic mass society Study of political movements

Changing pattern of Indian political organization The major impacts Village democracies in the ancient and modern India Changing structure of political leadership in India and the Indian political elites

Books recommended

- Key, V O *Politics, Parties and Pressure Groups* New York, Thomas Y Crowell 1947, Michels Roberto *First Lectures in Political Sociology*, translated by Alfred de Grazia Minneapolis, University of Minnesota Press 1949, Robert Merton *A Reader in Bureaucracy*

Free Press 1952, Mac-Iver Robert *The Web of Government* New York, Macmillan Co 1957, Karl Mannheim *Ideology and Utopia* Fr, Karl Mannheim *Freedom Power and Democratic Planning*, Alvin Gouldner ed *Studies in Political Leadership*, New York, Harper and Bros 1950, Max Weber *Essays in Sociology*, Max Weber *Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, Lass Well Harold *Power and Personality* New York, W.W Norton Co 1948 Truman David *The Governmental Process*, New York, Alfred A Knopf 1951, "Hoover Institute Studies in Elite" Palo Alto *Stanford University Press* 1951-52, Arendt Hannah *The Origin of Totalitarianism*, New York, Harcourt Brace, 1957, Marx and Engels *The Origin of Marriage, Family Property and State*, Mukerjee, R K *Democracies of the East*, Mukerjee, Radha Kumud *Local Self Government in Ancient India*, Margaret, W Fisher and John, V Bondurant *The Indian Experience with Democratic Functions*, 1955, A M Sorjee *Voting Behaviour in an Indire Village*, M S University Baroda, 1959

3 Criminology

Nature and importance of Criminology Prospective and methods in Criminology Criminology and Science, Criminology and Criminal law Concept of crime Various approaches to the concept of crime

Types of crime and criminals White collar crime organised crime, Delinquency and crime Crime as deviant behaviour Crime and personality disorganization Crime and Social disorganization Crime and Society. Delinquency and crime in India

Theories of Crime causation and various schools in Criminology Factors responsible for changes in criminological concepts Recent theories of crime causation

Penology and criminology Evolution of Punishment Theories of punishment Capital Punishment, its efficiency and utility From punishment to correction and reformation Objectives and methods in correction Correctional institutions prisons and reformation Types of prisons and prison reforms Police, Courts and trials Juvenile courts Extramural treatment, probation and parole History and problems of penal reform in India with special reference to U P, Social reconstruction and control of crime Recent experiments in correction and rehabilitation.

Text-Books

Criminology by Donald R Taft Macmillan Co., New York, 1956
New Horizons in Criminology by Marnes and Teeters
Crime Problems by Walter C Reckless
Principles of Criminology by Sutherland
Contemporary Correction edited by Paul Tapp. 1951.
Delinquent Boys by Cohen
Social and Economic Aspect of Crime in India by Haikerwal

Reference Books

- Crime, Causes and Conditions by Hans Von Hentig, McGraw Hill 1947
 Criminology by R S Cavan
 Criminology and Penology by Gillin
 Crime and Community by Tarmen Bawn
 Culture Conflict and Crime by Throsten Sellin
 Criminal Justice and Social Reconstruction by Himan, Macmillan
 Psycho analytical Theory of Juvenile Delinquency by Kate Friedlander
 Social Pathology by Edwin M Leruert
 Jail Enquiry Committee Reports, Government of India
 Reports on Juvenile Delinquency in S E Asia by M N O
 Government of India Reports on Juvenile Delinquency

4 *Indian Rural Society*

- I *General Operation* Rural Sociology, definition and scope
 Approaches to the study of complex social systems The concepts of peasant society and Rural urban continuum
 Village Studies in India brief review

II *Indian Rural Society*

- (a) General characteristics of Rural Society in India Demography, economy, education, types of villages, salient features of the Indian village
 (b) The village social structure Family and joint family, caste-endogamy and exogamy, caste councils, Intercaste relationships, Jajmani system, Caste and occupation, village politics leadership, Panchayats (traditional and modern), The village Pantheon and Festival cycle, Rural Recreations
 (-) Rural problems and social change
 (1) Major rural problems Indebtedness, Fragmentation of land holdings, Rural unemployment
 (2) Programmes of change Cooperative Movement, Community Development Programmes, Democratic Decentralization, Third Five Year Plan

Books Recommended

- Desai, A. R. *Rural Sociology in India* Srinivas, M. N. (ed) *India's Villages*, Marriott, Mackinn (ed) *Village India*, Ratzlaph, Ralph, H. *Village Government of India*, Sachchidanand *Bharat ki Samudayik Vikas*, Yajmayer, Lewis Oscar *Village Life in Northern India*, Redfield, R. *Peasant Society and Culture*, Srinivas, M. N. *Caste in Modern India*, Reserve Bank of India *All India Rural Credit*

Survey, Nanawati and Anjaria : Indian Rural Problems, Malaviya, H. D. : Village Panchayats in India, Srinivas, M.N. : The Dominant Caste in Rampur, Mayer, A. C. : Caste and Kinship in Central India, Bailey, F. G. : Caste and Economics Frontier, Wiser, W. H. : The Hindu Jajmani System.

5. Social Anthropology

(1) Concept of Culture ; Growth of Culture : Evolution, Diffusion, Innovation, Integration of Culture, Functional, Configurational and Thematic approaches, Culture and Personality. Acculturation, Basic Personality, Structure, Race and Culture.

(2) Social Structure and Social Organisation, Marriage, Family Incest Kinship system, clan, Primitive Law and Government. Economic organisation Magic and Religion. Totemism, Animism, Animatism, Mana.

(3) Tribal India : Racial, linguistic, geographical and cultural classification, Major forms of social organisation. Matrilineal societies, Polyandry, Youth Dormitories. Tribes and Hindu Peasantry. Problems of culture contact.

(4) Applications of Anthropology.

Reference

Barnet, H. G. : *Anthropology in Administration*, Beals, Ralph and Hoyer, Henry. *An Introduction to Anthropology*, Childe, C. V. : *Man Makes Himself*, Firth, R. W. : *Elements of Social Organisation*, Government of India : *Ad vasis*, Herskovits, M. J. : *Man and His Works*, Hoehel, E. H. : *Man in the Primitive World*, Honigman, John J. : *The World of Man*, Keesing, Felix M. : *Cultural Anthropology : The Science of Custom*, Kroeber, A. L. (ed). : *Anthropology Today*, Lowie, Robert : *Primitive Society*, Madan, T. N. and Saran G. (ed) : *Indian Anthropology*, Majumdar, D. N. : *Races and Cultures of India*, Murdock, G. P. : *Social Structure*, Oakely, K. P. : *Man the Tool Maker*, Titiev, Mischa : *An Introduction to Social Anthropology*, Piddington, Ralph : *An Introduction to Social Anthropology, Vol 1.*

Paper VIII. Empiric Research Report

The report must be based on original data not exceeding 75 pages and is examined by two examiners, one of whom is an external examiner. Marks are awarded after the viva voce examination has been conducted. The viva voce and thesis,—each carry 100 maximum marks. The Board of Examiners thus constituted consists of the Head of the Department and the external examiner. This Board of Examiners examines the Report and conducts viva voce.

CHAPTER XXVI

SOCIAL WORK

Social work education as a professional discipline had in U S A its beginning in 1898. Summer training course for charity workers was started by the charity organisation society. By 1904, this summer training developed into one year's course. In the same period, the university of Chicago established under its aegis an institute of social science. This further developed into an independent school of civics and philanthropy. Gradually a number of institutions organised school of social work and the idea to treat social work education as an independent discipline spread and has taken firm roots not only in America but other countries also *

In India, teaching and training in 'social work', was a minor head under other major heads but during the last several years 'social work' has developed into a separate discipline. Of course, as the name implies it covers a wide range of subjects and as in case of several other disciplines, some of the subjects covered overlap the courses of studies prescribed for other disciplines, with the result that the topics of study under this head have also figured in the report on teaching of some other disciplines. But since it has acquired the status of a distinct discipline and has been recognised as one of the separate subjects for being offered at the B A examination and as a distinct discipline for M A degree, it is being dealt with here, separately.

The teaching of social work includes topics such as community development and welfare, social organisation and disorganisation, the social functions of science and history of science, Indian social problems—philosophy, methods and fields of social work, dynamics of human behaviour and personality, social research and statistics, community organisation and social action, social case work, social group work, social administration and social security, industrial relations and personnel management, labour problems, labour legislation and labour welfare, Indian rural problems and agrarian legislation, rural community development and co operation, criminology, penology and juvenile delinquency, family welfare services, medical, social work, psychiatric social work etc.

Some of the topics are the same as are included in sociology, social psychology, industrial sociology, labour welfare,

*Social work education by Katherine A. Kendall, Associate Director, Council on Social Work Education, 345 East, 46th Street, New York, 17 N Y (p 196)

statistics, criminology, economics, etc., but comparatively speaking this is a new degree and for giving the readers an idea of its scope, some detailed information is being furnished below

The universities have their usual syllabus for B A. That of the Lucknow University may be cited as illustrating the general teaching in the discipline. There are four papers in B A, two in B A Part I and two in B A Part II

B A Part I

Paper I Foundations of human relations

Paper II Social work Principles and practice

B A Part II

Paper I Community development and welfare

Paper II Social disorganisation

Tata Institute of Social Sciences

In this report of teaching of social sciences in Indian universities during the period 1956-1967 it is necessary to refer to the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, because it is one of the institutions exclusively devoted to the teaching of social sciences and has been deemed to be a university under the UGC Act. This status was conferred on the institute in 1964.

It has now started M A degrees in social work and also a separate degree in 'personnel management and labour welfare'. Before commencing teaching in these two subjects for the M A degree it used to run a two year postgraduate programme and specialised in the following fields:

- (i) criminology and correctional administration,
- (ii) family and child welfare,
- (iii) labour welfare and industrial relations,
- (iv) medical and psychiatric social work,
- (v) rural welfare,
- (vi) social research,
- (vii) tribal welfare,
- (viii) urban community development

It has also one year certificate programme in the social research

Even its postgraduate diploma in social service administration had been recognised by the Government of India in consultation with the Union Public Service Commission as an alternative

(B) specialisation courses	400
(C) field work	250
(D) project report	100
Total	1000

Final marks awarded are based on examinations, to classroom discussions and assignments

The institute has the following departments (1) department of criminology and correctional administration, (2) department of family and child welfare, (3) department of labour welfare and industrial relations; (4) department of medical and psychiatric social work, (5) department of social research, (6) department of rural welfare and urban community development

Library 1086, new columns were added to the stock, bringing the total number of books as on 30th June, 1966 to about 19,000. The number of professional journals has risen to 280

The Institute is actively trying to acquire a complete set of census reports on India from 1871 to 1951

As stated earlier this institute is preparing students for (i) M.A. in social work and (ii) M.A. in personnel management and labour welfare programme. The details of teaching in these two have been furnished in this chapter and the chapter dealing with industrial sociology respectively

So far this institute is teaching these two disciplines. Though comparisons are odious, we may be permitted to observe that as regards social work, this is one of the chosen few institutions—perhaps the best in India

Since particulars in regard to one Institution will not present an integrated picture we are furnishing some details in regard to teaching of Social Work by the Kerala University and then we shall revert to teaching at the Tata Institute of Social Sciences.

UNIVERSITY OF KERALA

Degree of Master of Social Work (M. S. W.)

1. Eligibility for admission

Admission to the course is open to the following categories of candidates —

- (i) graduates of recognised universities with sociology, social work, anthropology, psychology philosophy, economics, history, political science, public administration and geography as one of their subjects, or
- (ii) graduates in any faculty with a law degree, or
- (iii) graduates in any faculty with a diploma in social service of Kerala or Madras universities. These candidates are

not granted exemption from any period of study or from appearing for examination in any subject. They have to undergo the full course, and take all the examinations.

In the light of experience candidates who have qualified in such other subjects as may be definitely considered useful background for training in a field of social work is also considered for admission to the course.

Candidates for admission to the course should have attained the age of 19 years on the first of August of the year of admission.

2. *Assessment of candidates seeking admission*

Colleges offering this course use appropriate methods to assemble and evaluate objective information regarding personality qualities. These include a detailed application form and individual and group interviews and, if necessary, written tests. Teachers of the department of social work of the college are actively associated with the selection of students.

Apart from academic merit, colleges give preference for admission to candidates who have interest in people and in their welfare, capacity to get along with people, emotional balance and maturity.

3. *Course of Study*

The course of study for the degree of Master of Social Work extends over a period of two academic years and comprises the following —

- (i) social and psychological information essential for social work,
- (ii) methods of working with individuals, groups and communities,
- (iii) methods of social work administration and social work research,
- (iv) Any one of the following special subjects of study .—
 - (A) labour welfare and industrial relations,
 - (B) correctional social work,
 - (C) rural and urban community development ;
- (v) field work ,
- (vi) research project

Instruction is imparted through lectures, case discussions, seminars, and above all, through practical work in institutions and agencies.

4. *Duration of study*

The course of study extends over a period of two full academic years. The long summer vacation between the first and the second years is also utilised by the students for collecting data

for the project report Class instruction and practical training is on a full time basis and students enrolling for this course are not permitted to remain in employment

5 *Conditions for admission to the Degree*

Candidates are eligible for the degree of Master of Social Work on the successful completion of —

- (i) the university examination held annually,
- (ii) the required amount of supervised field work to the satisfaction of the teaching staff of the college, and
- (iii) the project report acceptable to the examiners

6 *Teaching of the subjects and hours of work*

The following subjects are taught for the Master of Social Work

No	Title	Hrs per week	Year in which taught
1	Man and society	3	first
2	Human growth and development	4	first
3	Social case work	2	first
4	Social group work	2	first
5	Community organisation	2	first
6	Social work research	2	first
7	Field work I	15	first
8	Social work administration	2	second
9	Social legislation	2	second
10	*Special subject—one of the following —	5	second
	(A) (i) labour welfare and industrial relations,		
	(B) (i) rural and urban community development, or		
	(C) (i) correctional social work		
11	*Special subject—one of the following —	5	second
	(A) (ii) labour welfare and industrial relations,		
	(B) (ii) rural and urban community development, or		
	(C) (ii) correctional social work		
12	Field work II	15	second
13	Project report	As required by the staff of the department of social work	first and second
14	Block field work	One month	second

* A student has to take two papers in the same field.

7 *Scheme of Examination*

There are two examinations one at the end of the first year, viz, previous and the other at the end of the second year, viz, final

<i>Paper</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Hrs</i>	<i>Marks</i>
<i>Previous (at the end of the first year)</i>			
I	Man and society	3	100
II	Human growth and development	3	100
III	Social work	3	100
IV	(A) social group work and (B) community organisation	3	100
V	Social work research	3	100
VI	Field work I	3	100
			<hr/> 600 <hr/>
<i>Final (at the end of the second year before Block field work)</i>			
VII	(A) Social work administration and (B) Social legislation	3	100
VIII	Special subject		
	(A) (i) labour welfare and industrial relations, (B) (i) rural and urban community development, or (C) (i) correctional social work	3	100
IX	Special subject		
	(A) (ii) labour welfare and industrial relations, (B) (ii) rural and urban community development, or (C) (ii) correctional social work.		
X	Field work II		100
XI	Project report		100
XII	Block field work		100
Total			<hr/> 1200 <hr/>

This was the position till the end of 1961-62 academic session but beginning from July 1962, the above scheme has been modified as follows —

Community Organisation has become a separate paper with 100 marks. The subject continues to be taught during the second year at the rate of 2 hours per week and a 3 hours examination is held at the end of the second year. Social group work is taught during the first year at the rate of 2 hours per week and an examination of three hours' duration is given in the first year. The papers have been re-numbered. There are now a total of 13 papers with 1,300 marks instead of 12 papers with 1,200 marks.

8 Examinations

The University conducts the first year previous examination in papers I, II, III, IV and V as well as the second year final examination in papers VII, VIII and IX. In addition, the university makes arrangements for the evaluation of research projects. Field work I, Field work II and Block Field work are evaluated by the college department staff in consultation with the staff of Field work centres. In view of the constant supervision process involved in the field work programme, there is no viva voce examination.

Not later than the 1st of August each year, the college has to communicate to the university the research project topics chosen by the candidates to enable the university to appoint examiners for valuing the project reports. The project reports are submitted to the university not later than 1st February each year. The topics of research projects are connected with the special subjects chosen by the students.

9 *Pass minimum and scheme of classification of successful candidates*
Students should obtain 40% marks in individual papers and 50% in the aggregate, for passing each part. In field work, the minimum for passing is 50%.

A candidate is declared to have passed the examination in first class if he obtains 60% and over marks in the grand total and all other successful candidates are placed in the second class.

A student who fails in field work I is not promoted to the senior class even if he passes in the written papers at the first year university examinations. He is given only one more opportunity to repeat Field work I within a period of three years before promotion to the senior class. Similarly, a student failing in Field work II is required to repeat it successfully, within a period of three years.

Departments of social work make arrangements for enabling candidates failing in field work to repeat their practical training on payment of the usual field work fees. Research project reports too are improved and re-submitted again if not approved by examiners.

A student has to pass in all papers including field work completely prior to promotion to the second year class. A

candidate can take his field work or submit the project report only twice, i.e., he is allowed to repeat only once. He can appear in written examinations thrice. A candidate is required to reappear in all the written papers of the previous or final examinations if he fails in one or more written papers of the examinations. A failed candidate has to complete his field work, project report or written examinations within a period of three years from the first appearance.

10. *Field Work*

Supervised practical work is an integral part of the training programme. A minimum of 15 hours of supervised field work per week throughout the academic year is required of each student. Candidates are provided with extensive opportunities for field work under supervision in institutions and agencies approved by the university.

Agencies selected for student field work have—

- (a) a well defined field work programme,
- (b) willingness to give facilities for training, and
- (c) a policy of maintaining standards in social work.

The colleges submit to the university information on all field work centres where students are placed for training. Evolution of field work is the responsibility of the staff of the department of social work who are assisted by the staff of the field work centres.

All field work except block field work, is arranged on a concurrent basis. Under the concurrent plan, there are no class room lectures on two to three working days a week and on such days, students report at field work centres.

11. *Project Report*

Every student is required to complete an individual research project. The project must have bearing on the special subject chosen by the student as already mentioned above.

The candidates select research projects in consultation with the staff of the department of social work. Preparatory work pertaining to the research projects e.g., preparation of questionnaire etc. are completed prior to the first year examination of the university. The summer vacation immediately after the examination is utilised for collecting data pertaining to the problem under study. Two typewritten copies of the final report approved by the teacher in charge of the student's research project countersigned by the head of the department, is submitted to the university by 1st February. The university makes arrangements for the evaluation of project reports by external examiners, who are not teachers in a department of social work under Kerala University.

The object of the project report is primarily to give students training in methods of social work research, and in the methodology of research. The students are not expected to produce reports that are comparable in size, quality and originality to the usual Master's thesis in other subjects wherein the eligibility for degree is determined primarily by the merit of the written report.

For number of students in M A and Ph D in Indian universities, readers are referred to pages 538 and 539.

The course prescribed for M A in Social Work by Tata Institute of Social Sciences is given below.

M A. Degree Programme in Social Work

Descriptions of Courses A—Basic Courses

1 Sociology and Indian Social Problems

Sociology—The study of sociology and its importance for social workers, relationship of sociology to other social sciences, types of social systems—sub-human, human concepts used in a sociological analysis of institutions, society and the individual the process of socialization, the process of social control the problem of deviance some social institutions—marriage, family, religion, caste, education, social differentiation—regional differentiation—rural urban, the phenomenon of sub-cultures—class, race nationality relationship between social differentiation and stratification, social change—the process of urbanisation and bureaucratisation in India, social problems. **Indian Social Problems**—problems of poverty illiteracy and ill health, problems of social dependence—the orphan, the widow, the unmarried mother and the illegitimate child, the beggar, the physically handicapped individual, the mentally handicapped individual, problems of the socially underprivileged communities—Scheduled castes, Scheduled tribes and Denotified communities, problems of prostitution and immoral traffic, problems of housing, problems of crime and delinquency (Two hours per week during first and one hour per week during second terms) (BC)

2 Economics

Scope and definition of economics, its relationship with social sciences and with social work, stages of economic development from hunting and fishing stage to modern factory system, economic and social problems created by modern economy, economics of underdeveloped countries, growth economics, nature, meaning and criteria of underdevelopment, nature of India's underdevelopment, the Five Year Plans, financial resources, price policy, the population problem, the problems of rural economy, community development, industrial development, the labour problems, employment and unemployment, co operation, allocation for

social and welfare services, alternative economic systems capitalism, socialism and communism, Gandhian economics One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

3. Psychology

Nature and scope of psychology, methods of psychology, motivation, frustration and conflicts, defence mechanisms, emotions and emotional behaviour, perception—attention—social perception, learning—habit formation, remembering and forgetting; intelligence, heredity and environment, maturation and development, personality—significance of childhood—stages of development—individual in a group, leadership, principles of propaganda, mental health—mental illnesses, psychological testing, problems of adolescence, problems of adulthood, problems of ageing, psychology and social work (One hour per week during first and two hours per week during second terms) (BC)

4 Psychiatric Information

Child Emotional needs of the child, need for security, growth and development, recognition, response, companionship of parents, play and concrete parental ideals, parent child relationship, parental overprotection, rejection dominance and submissiveness, attacking and withdrawing types of disorders—stealing, lying, truancy, aggressiveness, bullying, teasing, destructiveness, sex offences, shyness, sensitiveness, seclusiveness, day dreaming, absent-mindedness, nervousness, night terrors, sleep talking and sleep walking, habit problems—stammering, fidgeting bed wetting, thumb sucking, nail biting, excessive masturbation, mental deficiency, juvenile psychoses, child guidance movement, child guidance clinics, roles of psychiatrist, pediatricist, psychologist, and psychiatric social worker *Adult*—Brief review of the history of psychiatry, causes of mental illness, the role of anxiety, various manifestations of mental illness, symptoms, course and treatment of different illnesses, psychoses—schizophrenia, manic depressive psychosis, organic psychosis, etc, difference between psychosis and psychoneurosis, clinical features of various types of psychoneurosis, psychosomatic disorders, psychopathic personality, drug addiction, brief summary of different lines of treatment, psychotherapy, physical therapies, brain operations, occupational therapy, role of social worker in the study and treatment of psychiatric disorders (Two hours per week during second term) (BC)

5 Health and Hygiene

Modern concept of health and hygiene, branches of hygiene like maternal, industrial, social, mental, etc, concept of multiple causation of disease, systems of the body and their disorders; pathological changes like inflammation, degenerations, neoplastic changes, vascular changes and disorders of growth, microbes and

the part played by them in the causation of disease; implications of immunity in the prevention of disease, symptoms, causes and treatment of major diseases like tuberculosis, leprosy, cancer, venereal diseases, diabetes, small pox, diseases of children, heart diseases, kidney diseases, etc., blood, its contents, groups, donation and transfusion, reproduction and sex hygiene; care of the expectant mother at pre natal, natal and post natal stages; care of family planning and techniques of coception control; food and the newborn; significance of nutrition in the promotion of health, systems of medicine practised in India and their role in prevention and treatment of ill health, major health problems in rural areas and measures to combat them, history of Public Health Department in India and its functions in the area of promotion of health, prevention and treatment of ill health; problems of chronic sub health of the people; implications of personal hygiene; mental hygiene and its bearing on the concept of dichotomy of mind and body (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

6. History, Philosophy and Fields of Social Work

What is social work? Use of terms 'social work', 'social welfare', 'social services', 'social reform'; social work in a historical perspective, relationship between pattern of social welfare work and social structure, history of social work, Social welfare in Britain prior to industrialisation, social welfare in the nineteenth century in Britain, social welfare in pre British India; social welfare and social reform in the nineteenth century in India; social welfare since Independence, the emergence of the profession, Basic concepts as developed in U S A, applicability in India, Social work and voluntary action, role of voluntary action, the volunteer and the professional, Social work, social reform and social action; Social work and the welfare state Voluntary and State activity in social work, Fields of social work, social work as a problem-oriented activity, types of problems of individuals, groups and communities, types of services and programmes, Government services Some commonly recognized fields of social work—Labour welfare, Correctional social work; Family and child welfare, Medical and psychiatric social work; Community development, Social work education; Social work research (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

7. Social Casework

History and development of social casework method in India and abroad, definitions of social casework, contributions of social sciences to social casework, contributions of religion to social casework, contributions of psycho analysis to social casework; inter relations of social casework and other methods of social work, concepts of case, person and problem in the practice of social casework, nature of blockings that affect a person's problem solving efforts, methods of case study, diagnostic and

evaluation processes, methods of treatment, caseworker client relationship; concept of authority in the practice of social casework; interviewing in social casework; generic and specific aspects of social casework settings, primary and secondary settings for the practice of social casework, types of social case recording, values of social case recording for the agency, worker and supervisor, cultural factors and their bearing on the practice of social casework, preventive and promotive aspects of social casework practice, nature of community resources in India, (Select case records are studied Approximately 15 hrs are devoted to case discussions) (Two hours per week during first and one hour per week during second terms) (B C)

8 Social Group Work

Social group work as a method of social work, historical development of group work, role of group in personality development, social process in groups, basic concepts of group work, principles and method, role of professional social worker in helping groups to utilise group relations, programmes and leadership for their development, leadership process in groups, characteristics of various age groups and their problems of group relations, programme as a tool in group work, inherent values of certain programme media, group work in various agency settings, community centres children's institutions, hospitals, administration and group work (Two hours per week during first and one hour per week during second terms) (BC)

9 Social Research including Laboratory in Social Research

Science and scientific method, scope and meaning of social research, its relationship with social sciences and social work, social work research, its need and scope in social work field, interdisciplinary approach in social work research, planning and execution of social surveys, stages in research project from selection of topic to submission of report, time schedule regarding research project, use of the library, research and reference services, selection of the topic and formulation of the problem, preliminary research, formulating, testing and development of hypothesis, research design, types of research studies, methods of data collection, documents and bibliographical survey, observation—participant and nonparticipant, controlled and non-controlled, schedule, questionnaire and interview, case studies and life histories, projective techniques, pre testing the tools, pilot study, processing data editing and scrutiny, classification, coding, tabulation and frequency distributions, report writing—chapterisation, bibliography, index, documentation, footnotes, writing style and preparation of abstract, importance, scope and application of social statistics and quantification of social data, mathematical background, graphic presentation, measures

of central tendency, measures of dispersion, correlation; sampling and sampling errors. Laboratory in social research provides practical training to students in social research either through assignments or through assigned participation in research schemes (Two hours per week during first and second terms). (BC)

10 Family and Child Welfare

Changing family patterns in India—a historical review, analysis of family life in India—its strength and limitations, place of child in relation to family, society and culture, concept of family organisation and disorganisation—contributing factors, problems of child in his own home problems of the child deprived of normal home life such as destitution, dependency, beggary, etc., evolving concepts of family and child welfare programme—the children's charter of rights, family and child welfare programme in India—a brief review of its nature, scope, financial implications, etc (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

11 Research Seminar

This seminar is devoted to a discussion of matters pertaining to the project report (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

12 Community Organisation

Meaning of the term community, geographic area, legal unit of government, collection of neighbourhoods, network of special interests, community as a social system, sub-systems, power structures, social ranking, resistance to outside influence, etc., types of communities—their characteristics, meaning of organisation, formal and informal, history of community organisation, impact of industrial revolution, settlement movement and Charity Organisation Society, mobilisation of neighbourhood forces, co operation and co ordination at various levels, main features of these movements in U.K., U.S.A. and Scandinavian countries in the field of health housing, recreation, youth work, child welfare, etc., community organisation in India, charity organisation, movements for co operation and co ordination, emergence of community development concept, community organisation and community development, similarities and differences, history and auspices programme content, philosophy, etc., community organisation as a method of social work, principles of community organisation, adjusting social welfare resources to social welfare needs within a geographic area or a functional field, approaches to community organisation, specific content, general content, process objective, study of community organisation structure at various levels, neighbourhood councils, councils of social agencies, community chests, State-wide planning and co ordinating agencies, study of structure

and function of selected agencies, social worker's role in community organisation, adjustment of relations between groups in terms of social goal which is selected modified and carried out by the involved groups, development of suitable structure and channels of communication, study, diagnosis and planning of action execution and evaluation, inter group work method, role of the worker as a guide, enabler, resource person, specialist, role of community organisation worker compared with that of social case worker and group worker, basic skills, skills in community organisation, conference and committee skills, consultation, negotiation, use of relationship for the fulfilment of the goal, involvement of citizen groups, public relations, social action, fund raising, etc., other processes in community organisation, administrative, educational and promotional processes (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

13 Social Welfare Administration

Definition of concepts, social administration—social welfare administration—public administration and public welfare administration, philosophy of social welfare administration, evolution of social policy, inter relations with social and economic development—planning for social welfare, statutory and voluntary organisation, role organisation—finances—personnel—co ordination, principles and techniques of social welfare administration, office management—budgeting, accounting, record keeping fund raising etc., supervision, research, reporting, evaluation, public relations, etc., administration of Central Social Welfare Board, Department of Social Welfare, Commissioner for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, Central Bureau of Correctional Services, State Directorates and Departments, administration of residential institutions, personnel problems in social welfare administration—recruitment—training—staff development, etc (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

14 Law and Social Work

Laws in relation to social values and social policy; legislation in furtherance of social justice, the relation of public opinion and law, the legislative process, the role of the social worker in promoting social legislation. General structure of courts and the judicial procedure, Police organisation and administration, introduction to the Indian Penal Code and Criminal Procedure Code, elements of Hindu and Muslim Law, review of legislation pertaining to children, child marriage, mental illness, leprosy, beggary, immoral traffic, corruption, adulteration, prohibition, drug control, labour and employment, licensing and recognition of welfare institutions, Public Trust Act and Charity Commissioner's Office. The legal aid movement abroad and in India (One hour per week during first and second terms) (BC)

B SPECIALISATION COURSES

1 *Criminology and Correctional Administration*

1 Criminology I

Criminology as a social science, Nature of criminal behaviour, Crime as a social problem, Crime in India Sources of criminal statistics, Problems of criminal statistics Constitutional explanations of crime, Psychological factors—intelligence, mental deficiency, Social factors—family companions, community, Economic factors—poverty, unemployment, Categorical risks in crime, Area variations—rural urban variations, Ordinary criminal careers, Professional criminals, White collar crime, Organised crime, Role of victim in crime (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CC)

2 Criminology II

Juvenile delinquency, Juvenile court, Criminality of women, Denotified (ex criminal tribe) communities, Prostitution, Beggary, Suicide, Evolution of punishment, Theories of punishment, Capital punishment, Control of crime and delinquency, Prevention (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CC)

3 Correctional Institutions

Origin of prison, Statutory basis of prisons in India, Prison reform movement in India All India Jail Manual Committee, U N Standard Minimum Rules Interdependence of institutional design and programme Administrative organisation of institution Custody, Discipline, Admission, Quarantine procedure Classification, Educational programmes, Library services, Vocational training work programmes Inmate organisation, Pre release preparation, Records Staff inmate relationships, Public relations, Under trial prisoners, Remand/observation homes, Certified/approved schools, Reformatories, Borstals, Open institutions, Women's institutions, Roles of the welfare liaison officer (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CC)

4 Probation, Parole and Aftercare

Probation Principles of probation, Probation legislation, Organisation of probation, Pre sentence investigation, Eligibility for probation, Probation conditions Probationary supervision, Probation homes and hostels, Revocation of probation, Discharge from probation Parole, Principles of parole, Statutory and other basis for parole Organisation of parole, Preparation for parole, Eligibility for parole, Parole conditions, Parole supervision, Revocation of parole, Discharge from parole, Probation and parole Aftercare Principles of aftercare Correctional and non-correctional aftercare, Discharged prisoners' and

societies, Aftercare associations, Recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Aftercare, Organisation of aftercare, District shelters, State homes, Other aftercare services, Parole and aftercare (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CC)

5 Criminal and Correctional Law and Procedure

Criminology and criminal law, Familiarisation with the organisation and content of the Indian Penal Code, Survey of the Criminal Procedure Code, Basic principles of the Law of Evidence, Organisation and functions of agencies dealing with the administration of justice, Special problems of justice and the poor, Legal aid, Overview of salient features of law as it applies to correctional work, Prisons Act, Prisoners Act, Transfer of Prisoners Act, Lunacy Act, Borstal Act, Reformatory Schools Act, Children Act, Women's and Children's Institutions (Licensing) Act, Probation of Offenders Act, Habitual Offenders Act, Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, Beggar Act, Prohibition Act, Police Act, Effect of law on the potential rehabilitation of the offender, Trends and limitations imposed by legal concepts, Reform of the criminal law, Courts and the correctional system (Two hours per week during first term) (CC)

6 Seminar on Criminology

The seminar is devoted to intensive study and critical analysis of important problems of criminology. (Two hours per week during second term) (CC)

7. Seminar on Corrections

The seminar is devoted to intensive study of practical problems of correctional work (Two hours per week during second term) (CC)

2 Social Casework II

(Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

3 Advanced Information on Psychiatry and Psychosomatic Medicine

(Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

2 Family and Child Welfare

1 Child Psychology—Normal and Exceptional

Principles of growth and their application to practical problems of child care, Researchable areas and methods of child study, Child development from conception, through birth, infant, pre-school, school and adolescence, Movement towards maturity,

6 Family Social Work In the Industrial Setting

Objectives and organisational structure of industry, the human factor in industry, implications for social work practice particularly in relation to problems of families of workers and labour communities

Experiments in use of social work practice in industrial and business settings in the West, special problems of industrial workers in India, need for development of family social work units in industrial settings in India, structure and function of such units, status, role and administrative integration of the family social work unit with other departments in industry, use of social work methods, with the individual, the family and the community

The course is built upon evaluative discussions of records showing use of social work methods in industrial settings (1 C)

2 Social Case Work II

(Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

3 Advanced Information on Psychiatry and Psychosomatic Medicine

(Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

3 Seminar on Community Organisation

(One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

3 Medical and Psychiatric Social Work

1 Social Aspects of Illness, Handicaps, Care and Rehabilitation

Concept of 'Patient as a Whole' and its bearing on the study of illness and handicaps psychosocial factors in health and disease, effects of culture on reactions of the patient and his family towards ill health disease and handicaps, implications of hospitalisation for the patient and his family, social components of communicable and non communicable diseases, social components of physical handicaps like deafness, blindness and orthopaedic handicaps social aspects of epilepsy, social aspects of invisible handicaps like cardiac disorders and kidney disorders, etiology of stammering, psychosocial problems of stammering, concepts of orthopaedic surgery, physical medicine, occupational therapy and physiotherapy, modern concept of rehabilitation, existing facilities for treatment and rehabilitation of the sick and the physically handicapped in India, facilities for care and rehabilitation of the physically handicapped in the West, Employees' State Insurance Scheme and its bearing on the welfare of the sick and the physically handicapped worker,

reactions of the society towards mental illness and mental defect existing facilities for the care, treatment and rehabilitation of the mentally handicapped in India, care of the mentally handicapped in the West, problems of hospitalisation of the mentally ill, legislation (with special reference to Indian Lunacy Act) and its bearing on the care of the mentally handicapped (One hour per week during first and second terms) (MP)

2 Social Casework II

Value of psychoanalytic orientation in social casework, contributions of Freud and Adler to social casework, counselling and psychotherapy, use of social casework skill in the treatment of marital discord and other problems of family relationships, use of social casework skill in arranging foster care (home and institutional placement) and adoption of children, use of social casework skill in family planning, work with the aged, the physically ill, and the physically handicapped, social casework with unmarried mothers, prostitutes, homosexuals, juvenile delinquents and adult offenders, short term therapy in casework. Select case records are studied. Approximately ten hours are devoted to case discussions (Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

3 Advanced Information on Psychiatry and Psychosomatic Medicine

Psychiatry—Psychoneuroses and psychoses in children with special reference to childhood schizophrenia, child guidance methods, problems of mental deficiency, psychopathology in general, psychopathology in relation to psychoneuroses and psychoses, psychopathic personality, treatment procedures including electro shock treatment, insulin coma therapy and other physical methods of treatment, role of the psychiatric social worker in the treatment of psychiatric patients, role of the psychiatric social worker in the rehabilitation of psychiatric patients. Psychosomatic medicine—Relations between mind and body, general adaptation mechanism of Selye, psychosomatic disorders of the cardio vascular system, psychosomatic disorders of the gastrointestinal system, psychosomatic disorders of the respiratory system, psychosomatic disorders of skin, psychosomatic disorders of joints, psychosomatic disorders of central nervous system, psychosomatic aspects of gynaecological disorders, treatment of psychosomatic disorders (Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

4 Psychiatric Seminar

Students attend the psychiatric out patient department of the JJ Group of Hospitals. Demonstrations in electro convulsive therapy, insulin coma therapy and other physical methods of treatment are given. Indications, contra indications, dangers, side effects and results of these treatment methods are fully

discussed Information regarding modern drugs used in psychiatry is also given The psychiatrist demonstrates and discusses cases of organic and functional psychoses, psychoneuroses, psychopathic personalities, psychosomatic diseases, etc Students are instructed in detailed history taking Each student is allotted a certain number of cases at a time which he/she studies in detail and presents the findings before the group which are fully discussed from the etiological, diagnostic, prognostic and therapeutic points of view under the guidance of the psychiatrist. Often one subject from the whole field of psychiatry is taken up and discussed by the group (Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

5 Organization and Administration of Medical and Psychiatric Social Work

Concept, scope and uses of medical social work, growth of medical work in India and abroad, medical social work as an integrative activity in hospital practice, medical social work and public relations of the hospital, organisation of medical social service in a hospital or clinic with special reference to administrative set up, physical set up nature of referrals, disposal of case load and office management, functions of a medical social worker in hospitals clinics, sanatoria, departments of health and welfare, participation of medical, social worker in teaching of social and environmental factors in medicine concept, scope and uses of psychiatric social work, growth of psychiatric social work in India and abroad, functions of a psychiatric social worker in a hospital for mental diseases, psychiatric and mental hygiene clinic and child guidance clinic, psychiatric social worker's participation in psychodrama, therapeutic community, therapeutic social club, day hospital, etc. psychiatric social worker in mental hygiene education, participation of psychiatric social worker in teaching of social and environmental factors in psychiatry, psychiatric social worker in programmes for the mentally deficient, generic and specific aspects of social work in medical and psychiatric setting, use of volunteers in medical and psychiatric settings, team work and multidisciplinary approach in medical and psychiatric social work practice, personnel for medical and psychiatric social work, their training and equipment, staff development programmes in medical and psychiatric social work departments, modern concept of supervision as an educative and administrative process medical and psychiatric social worker as an executive and essential qualifications for the position, psychological factors in executive staff relationship (Two hours per week during second term) (MP)

6 Medical and Psychiatric Social Work Seminar

The purpose of the seminar is to help students to integrate theory and practice in the field of medical and psychiatric social

work Through group discussions on topics like psychodrama, therapeutic social clubs for mental patients, community treatment, various diseases, etc., or on problems like admission procedures in hospitals and clinics, building up community resources for the mentally and the physically handicapped, students are enabled to have a sound grasp of the various problems in the field. The seminar gives an opportunity to students to prepare carefully material drawn from their field work and class work experience and present to the group for analysis and evaluative discussions. (One hour per week during first and two hours per week during second terms) (MP)

7. Social Case Work III

History of psychoanalytic movement, common features of psychoanalytic schools, theories of Freud, Adler, Horney, Fromm, Sullivan, Rank and Rogers, child analysis with special reference to Anna Freud and Melanie Klein, application of psychoanalytic theories in therapeutic work, casework as a form of psychotherapy, diagnostic and functional schools of social casework, use of social casework principles and approach in administration, social research and supervision, use of supervision in learning casework skills, supervisor supervisee relationship in the development of professional self, professional self of a social caseworker and its implications in Indian context; personality of a social caseworker, personality and equipment of a casework supervisor, clinically oriented social casework in *child guidance, family counselling, marriage guidance and marriage counselling*, social casework with cases of character disorder, psychoneurosis and psychosis, etc., place of social casework in social work practice in India, direction of future trends in social casework practice in India. Select case records are studied. Approximately 15 hours are devoted to case discussions. (One hour per week during first and two hours per week during second terms) (MP)

8 Preventive Medical and Psychiatric Social Work

Modern concept of prevention in medicine and levels of prevention like health promotion, specific protection, early diagnosis and prompt treatment, disability limitation and rehabilitation, concepts of social medicine and specialised medicine, epidemiology and its uses, medical social worker and epidemiology, pollution and purification of water, air and ventilation, problems of health in developing countries, objectives of family planning, socio psychological and cultural implications of family planning, measures of conception control and treatment of sterility, relationship of mental hygiene to social work, mental hygiene in schools and colleges, mental hygiene aspects of marriage, *mental hygiene in business and industry*, medical and psychiatric

social worker in health education, preventive health services in India, mental health services in India, significant legislation in the field of health, e.g., Lepers Act (1898), Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act (1956), Indian Lunacy Act (1912) etc. (One hour per week during first and second terms) (MP)

4. *Social Research*

1. *Social Research*

General concept of research Types of research philosophical, prognostic, sociological, creative, pure and applied research The meaning, development and range of social research human nature and personality, family and culture groups, social institutions and community life, population and ecology, social problems Research method historical, descriptive, statistical, experimental, the case-study and the survey Basic techniques - observation, interview, questionnaire, tests and indices, statistical measures. The role of projective tests in social surveys Sociometric methods Objectivity, reliability and validity in social research (One hour per week during first and second terms) (SR)

2 *Statistics*

Introduction, collection and tabulation of data, graphic representation of data, rates, ratios and percentages, univariate and bivariate frequency tables, calculation of arithmetic and geometric mean, calculation of higher moments from grouped and ungrouped data, calculation of median and mode, measures of dispersion, elements of probability, common probability distributions—Normal, Binomial, Poisson, etc., measures of association, concept of regression and correlation, contingency tables, rank correlation, large sample tests, small sample and exact tests, uses of t , χ^2 , F test, elements of analysis of variance, the what why and how of sampling, place of sampling methods in surveys, comparison of sampling and census methods, sampling errors in a survey, different methods of sampling—simple, random, stratified and systematic, principles of choosing among alternative sampling methods, problems in a survey at the planning and execution stages, different methods of estimation, non sampling errors—sources and methods of controlling them, sampling methods in census with illustrations, large scale surveys. Laboratory work includes editing, coding, verification, tabulation, etc. (Two hours per week during first and second terms) (SR)

3 *Social Surveys and Official Statistics*

Social surveys—Meaning of a social survey, history and development of the survey movement from Charles Booth's London

Survey through Lynds' Middletown to the present day surveys including current surveys in India, the role of surveys in present day social work, planning stage, specification of the purpose, definition of the population, nature of information to be collected, research design, sample design, pilot surveys, administrative organisation, design of questionnaire, training of investigators, supervision of field work, methods of handling data, critical analysis and interpretation, preparation of report, types of social surveys—pattern survey, variability survey, locality, topical and community surveys, rural, urban and ecological surveys, appraisal of social surveys conducted in India and abroad, special discussions of Indian industrial, urban and rural surveys including the National Sample Survey, surveys, of the Project Evaluation Organisation, surveys of Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta Madras, major surveys carried out by various academic institutions under the sponsorship of the Government of India. Official statistics—The course deals with Indian census and government statistics, both with respect to source and content together with their most important uses in social surveys and the study of social problems. Students are required to get first hand acquaintance with statistical publications, statistical series and index numbers as prepared by the Union Government, State Governments and leading municipalities, relevant for social work and social surveys. Analysis and significance of time series, secular trend, seasonal and cyclic fluctuations, forecasting sequence, objects and methods of constructing index numbers, cost of living index numbers, family budgets, measurements of national income, interpretation of population statistics, census of India, elements of vital statistics and life tables, methods of compiling and sources of official statistics on health, education, labour, food and social services, historical development of Indian Government statistics, brief survey of the most important official publications of the United Kingdom and the United States and the United Nations as far as acquaintance with them is relevant for an understanding of some of the Indian Government statistics, organisation of the most important Indian Government agencies that deal with the collection of statistical data of interest to social research workers (Two hours per week during first and second terms) (SR)

4 Seminar on Social Work Research

Overview of salient features of social work and research, definition and principles of social work research, importance, scope and limitations of research in social work, general types of research in social work, conspectus of existing research methods and procedures relating to setting up of social work research projects, roles and responsibilities of schools of social work and social work agencies in conducting social work research, recent trends in social work research in India, critical review

of social work research studies in India and abroad (Two hours per week during first and second terms) (SR)

5 Supervision, Administration and Execution

Basic philosophy in supervision and administration, organisation, functions and administration of a research council, research committee, basic principles in the organisation of a research department, sectional lay out including laboratory and machine room, editing section, demonstration room, exhibition room, co-ordination and supervision of sectional assignments, equipment and apparatus office management, recording and documentation, purchasing and stores management, planning the organisation, budget personnel and administrative requirement of a social survey, field staff and office staff, necessary qualifications, training to be given to field and office staff; supervision of their work organisation of supervision, delegation of duties, accounting for the budget, organisational problems in the contact between the social survey unit and the organisation within which it works on the one hand, and the sponsor of the survey on the other hand, publications and their distribution, public relations, co-ordination with other research agencies, local bodies and State Governments (One hour per week during first and second terms) (SR)

6 Study of Attitudes and Group Behaviour

Attitudes and behaviour, characteristics of attitudes, formation of attitudes, change of attitudes, measurement of attitudes, Thurstone, Likert and Bogardus scale, assessing public opinion, group behaviour, methods of studying group behaviour, sociometry (One hour per week during first and second terms) (SR)

5 Urban and Rural Community Development

1 Municipal Administration

Growth of cities and urbanisation in India, history and general development of local self government in urban areas in India, structure of municipal government, forms of municipal government in India, municipal council, organisation and powers, executive in municipal government, functions of urban local bodies, municipal administration, organisation of departments and their functions, municipal personnel administration, recruitment conditions of service and trade unionism, municipal finance, sources of revenue and municipal expenditure, State control over urban local bodies, methods and problems (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

2 Urban and Rural Sociology

Scope of rural and urban sociology, relation to general sociology, folk and peasant societies, types of villages in India, the

physical structure, system of land tenure, the Indian village as a community, family and kinship in the Indian village, caste, class and occupation in the Indian village, traditional village, organisation and the panchayat, leadership in Indian villages, the creative utilisation of leisure, industrialisation, urbanisation and the rural society the city in history, the ancient and medieval Indian city, urbanization in modern India, demographic and occupational aspects, ecological patterns of cities, city-hinterland relationships in India, urbanization and economic development, local government in Indian towns and cities, urbanization and social institutions, marriage family education and recreation, urbanization and problems of social defence, housing and slums in Indian urban areas, urban community development in India modern approaches to town planning in metropolitan areas (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

3 Seminar on Community Organisation

The philosophy, concepts and principles of community organisation as a basic method and process in social work are discussed and developed through the use of case material and records of current field work practice and papers prepared by the students, (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

4 Urban Community Development

Growth of cities, urbanisation technology and cultural change types of communities in urban areas, heterogeneous nature of urban communities, urban community development its need and origin, slums, slum clearance and slum improvement approaches to urban community development, agency for urban community development, Ahmedabad, Calcutta and Delhi Projects, structure, personnel inter agency co operation and community planning problems of citizen participation, social action and community development, community welfare council its structure and function, mobilising community resources, training of community development workers professional and volunteers, methods of training, supervision of staff and volunteers, public relations, community development in new housing projects (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

5 Rural Community Development

Community development in Asian and African countries, early experiments in community development, community development in India, its background and origin, National Extension Services, concepts and principles of community development, community development administrative structure, block administration, roles of Block Development Officer and other project

personnel, democratic decentralisation, programmes of community development, agriculture, village industries, co operation, social education, Central Social Welfare Board and its welfare extension projects, recent trends in community development with special reference to people's participation, democratic decentralisation, training for community development at various levels (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

6 Panchayati Raj

Background of Panchayati Raj in India, Assam Panchayat Act, 1948, Directive Principles of State Policy in the Constitution 1950, Community Development Movement 1952, Central Social Welfare Board and Community Development 1953, Balwantrai Mehta Report on Democratic Decentralisation 1956, Changing Concepts in Rural Development, Roles of Social Education and Panchayats Panchayati Raj legislation in different States since 1957, three tier organisation of Panchayati Raj and its working, recent trends in Community Development and Panchayati Raj, personnel and their training for Panchayati Raj Students study State Panchayat legislation and prepare assignments on special aspects of Panchayati Raj A general survey of local self-government institutions in UK and other European countries is also included in the course to provide a comparative perspective (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

7 Social Education

Modern concept and objectives of social education, historical background in India, UK, USA, USSR, Scandinavian countries and in Asia, social education and co operative movement, UNESCO and fundamental education, psychological foundations of learning, adult abilities and motivations, social and psychological characteristics influencing the learning of adults, education for citizenship for social participation and for sex, marriage and family life, worker's education, social education in prisons, problem solving approach, methods of social education, symposium, panel discussion, forum, role playing etc, review of different audio-visual aids, adult literacy methods, review of materials used in teaching, reading and writing, literature for new literates, library service, criteria for selection of reading material in relation to users' social, cultural and educational background, community centres, training of social education workers, social education and community development; social education programmes for women and youths in rural and urban areas (One hour per week during first and second terms). (CD)

8 Rural Economy and Co operation

Rural Economy—definition and scope, rural transition in India, pattern of Indian rural economy, rural economic development

during the Plans, economics of agriculture, technical problems, irrigation, soil conservation, manures, fertilisers and plant breeding, problems of organisation and management, land problem, abolition of intermediary tenures, reduction of rents, security of tenure, ownership rights, ceiling on agricultural holdings, operating units, Bhoodan and Gramdan, agricultural reorganisation, farm management, land legislation, methods of cultivation, rural unemployment and underemployment, utilisation of rural manpower, rural works projects, rural industries, cottage and village industries, agricultural workers, special problems of regions. Co operation—Meaning and scope, origin, economic and social basis of the co operative movement, principles of co operation, co operative institution, its distinctive features and working rules, classification of the co operative societies, uses of co operation in India, its relationship to socialism and democracy, history of co operative movement in India, its characteristic features, co-operative law (acts, rules and bye laws), agricultural and non agricultural societies, credit and non-credit societies, single and multi purpose societies, central societies and unions, co operative management and administration, democratic control and policy making, co operative capital and accounting, role of the Reserve Bank in co operative movement, role of the State (One hour per week during first and second terms) (CD)

2. Social Case Work II

Two hours per week during first term) (MP)

Detailed Social Work course has been given to furnish an idea about what is being taught in Indian universities in this discipline

CHAPTER XXVII

CRIMINOLOGY

Criminology is the science of crime. This discipline has not been included in the survey in Part I of this book, but we are doing so in this part and a few words in explanation of this step would not be out of place.

Dr Radha Kamal Mukerjee states, "The unity of the social sciences comprises a common core of meanings, and values based on an interchange and coordination of the fundamental notions and methods of the various social studies dealing with man, his behaviour and culture"¹. It is on this basis that psychology has been dealt with in the second part, as one of the disciplines of social sciences. On the same principle, we shall be justified in including criminology as falling within the jurisdiction of this book. Another consideration which weighed with us in including teaching of criminology in Indian universities is that in December 1954, the general conference of UNESCO at its eighth session decided to include surveys on criminology. It would be relevant to deal with it because it is being taught in Indian universities—as a branch of study under sociology, psychology, social work etc. which disciplines we have included in this report.

Crime has been diagnosed in not a few cases as a mental disease. Kleptomania has acquired quite a 'status' due to its association with a number of persons of status. Even in cases where crimes have not their origin in psycho-neurotic disorders, functional psychotic disorders or in mental aberration, it is very frequently the result of social maladjustment and frustration brought about by living conditions—such as want and poverty, social injustice, racial prejudices, communal tensions, group rivalry, political subjugation or inequality, administrative autocracy, bureaucratic misbehaviour, inequitable distribution and overpenalising statutes. At times, it is the result of lethargic implementation or no implementation at all of promises made or assurances given or grievances piling upon grievances which are not only not redressed but allowed to accumulate to alarmingly massive proportions till they burst with a terrific blast. All these factors which lead to crimes—related to economic and political background, social conditions or to psychological complexes, are the subject matter of teaching criminology and it forms an integral part of sociology, social work and psychology. The various universities of India do not follow a uniform pattern.

BA Degree

For the BA degree there is no separate paper on criminology. But the fringe of the subject matter is touched under some of the subjects. For example

1 *A New Survey of Social Sciences*, published by Asia Publishing House

(1) In the Gujarat University in philosophy Paper—II, social and political philosophy are included, so also social pathology and social therapy, conflict, crime, etc.

(2) For B A. part II examination of 'social work', the Lucknow University includes in its syllabus—problems of the pre-delinquency phase in India : juvenile vagrancy, juvenile truancy and problems of juvenile misbehaviour etc

As stated above criminology is included in some universities under psychology or social-psychology, in others under sociology, social work etc.

For the M A. degree, criminology constitutes one of the papers in sociology in several universities. For example;

(i) *Agra* :—Paper VII It is one of the optional papers under sociology. See pages 532, 535, 536 under sociology.

(ii) *Rajasthan*—Criminology is included in paper VIII of sociology.

(iii) In *Patna* University, in M A. in sociology, group D pertains to criminology. There are two papers in this group ; paper V—social pathology and penology and paper VI—criminological and correctional research.

The following books are recommended for papers V and VI :—

1. *Principles of Criminology*—E.W. Sutherland. 2. *Criminal Investigation*—Han Grass. 3. *The Crime Problem*—N.C. Reckles. 4. *Crime Investigation*—Paul L. Kirt. 5. *New Horizons in Criminology*—H E. Bannes and N K Tietel. 6. *Crime and the Community*—Tance, B 7. *The Roots of Crime*—Sir Nowood East. 8. *Crime, Cause and Conditions*—Hans Von Hertic. 9. *Criminology*—Vollmer. 10. *Criminology*—Dudyche. 11. *Scientific Evidence*—Mitebal. 12. *Harris's Criminal Law*—H.A. Parney. 13. *Criminology*—Taft. 14. *Practice and Theory of Probation and Parole*—Dressler David. 15. *Probation and Criminal Justice*—Bilveck, S. 16. *Criminal Procedure Code*—Ratan Lal. 17. *Contemporary Correction*—Tappan, P.W. 18. *Source Book on Probation, Parole and Pardon*—Charles L. Newman. 19. *Society and Criminal*—Sethna 20. *Criminology*—Taft Donald, R. 21. *Sociology of Deviant Behaviour*—Marshall B. Clunard 22. *'Delinquent Boys' The Culture of the Gang*—Albert K. Cohen 23. *Criminology*—Caldwell, R G.

Criminology under "Social Work" (M.A)

Agra—In *Social Work* for (M. A.)

Crime and delinquency is included in Paper V part (A). In part (B) are included "Crime and jail reforms". The books recommended for study are (1) *Criminology and Penology* by Gillen (2) *Principles of Criminology* by Sutherland.

2. Lucknow University includes in Paper I for Master of social work part I, the following syllabus : conceptions of delinquency

and crime ; problems of the pre delinquency phases of juveniles ; the juvenile delinquent, the adolescent offender ; the socio-economic background of adult offence etc.

In M A part II course for Master of social work this university prescribes the entire paper VIII to criminology, penology and juvenile delinquency. The complete syllabus as well as books recommended for study have been given below.

Paper VIII—Criminology, Penology and Juvenile Delinquency

Perspective and Methods in Criminology, Development of Criminological Thought, Theories of Crime, Ethiological Factors in Delinquency and Crime Social Defence

The Evolution of Punishment, Development of Penological Thought, The Prison System, Origin and Development of Prisons in India, Probation and Preventive Measures of Crime, The Prison Community, Modern Correctional Programmes

The Pre delinquency Phase The Changing Conception of Delinquency The Modern Conception of Delinquency, Social Defence and Juvenile Delinquency, Correctional Institutions and Practices Rehabilitation

Books recommended

1 Reekless *Criminal Behaviour*. 2 Barnes and Teeters. *New Horizons in Criminology* 3 Sutherland *Principles of Criminology* (selected chapters) 4 Lemert *Social Pathology* (selected chapters) 5 Tannenbaum *Crime and Community*, 6 Elliot and Merrill *Social Disorganisation* (selected chapters) 7 Gillin : *Criminology*. 8 Fox *Modern English Prison* (selected chapters) 9 Report of the Indian Jail Committee 1946 10 Report of the U P Jail Reforms Committee, 1946 11 Healey and Bronner *New Lights on Delinquency and its Treatment* 12 Glueck *Unravelling Juvenile Delinquency* 13 Taft. *Criminology* 14 Tappan *Juvenile Delinquency* 15 Tappan *Modern Correctional Institutions* 16 Sheth, H *Juvenile Delinquency in Indian Setting*

Criminology under Labour and Social Welfare

There is an M A degree in "Labour and Social Welfare" at Patna university. In group A, paper V pertains to 'social pathology and planning'

It includes

- (c) crime—definition of crime—crime and social organisation—early theories of causes of crime—effects and remedies.
- (d) beggary—definition—types—causes—extent—effects and remedies
- (e) Prostitution—definition—nature of prostitution—causes—extent—effects—the patrons of prostitution, the persistence of organised prostitution in the face of controlled efforts, remedies

Criminology under Psychology —

In Gujarat University, for M A degree in Psychology—one of the optional groups is that of criminology The course consists of four papers on criminology —

- 1 Psychology of crime and delinquency,
- 2 Advanced abnormal psychology,
3. Psychology of personality,
4. Dissertation in the area of psychology of crime and delinquency

Particulars of teaching psychology of crime and delinquency are given below —

Paper XIV: Psychology of Crime and Delinquency

What psychology means for study of crime Approaches to criminal psychology man as free agent, hedonism, the Positive School, Criminal Man, crime and anatomy, evolution of criminal Psychology, psychiatric and sociological views, legal frame work, trends in correction, treatment and the public and vested interest Development of criminal predispositions nature of crime, specific or general causation, multi factor approach pre-dispositions, attitudes, feelings Culture, home and family in relation to delinquency and crime Social institutions and crime Movies, radio, television, comic books, other literature and crime Neighbourhood, occupations and crime Urbanization economic and technological factors and deviant behaviour Conflicts in marital and family roles Gauging criminal disposition, delinquency, reliability, validity, base-rate, psychological measures, inventories, MMPI, tests, Glueck prediction tables Juvenile delinquency the gang, other groups neurotic types, mixed patterns Psychology in juvenile court in treatment and other institutions Crime in relation to sex age, behaviour systems and personality traits Murderers Career criminals, Psychopathic (sociopathic) personalities Current practices in correction, new developments, the youthful offender. The drug addict, alcohol, offender, treatment The sex offender, treatment. Parole, Release after imprisonment Rebuilding and rehabilitating the offender Group approaches to social reintegration Prevention of crime Trends and future objectives Legal psychology law making interpretation, the court room, testimony, forensic psychiatry, spheres and characteristic of law Trial in criminal and civil cases the prosecutor, the proceedings, the jury, the examination, the evidence, the arguments the evaluation, the witnesses, the cross examination settlements tactics. Psychology of juries, of judges Criminal responsibility and psychiatry Psychology of lie detection

Part II also there are four papers. Paper V is social psychology. For Papers VI and VII students have to choose any two of the following.—

- (a) industrial psychology,
- (b) psychology of personality,
- (c) mental measurement,
- (d) social pathology,
- (e) principles of guidance and counselling,
- (f) special study

Candidates are required to choose a special problem for (f) above on which they carry on intensive experimental work or fieldwork for at least one year under the guidance of a teacher. The marks are distributed as follows —

On the work—80 marks, viva voce—20 marks

Here criminology comes under (d). This paper deals with

- (1) The Problem and field of social pathology
- (2) (a) social disorganisation—community disorganisation—family disorganisation—individual disorganisation, (b) concept of sociopathic deviation, sociopathic individuation
- (3) heredity and environment (a) intellectual deficiency and emotional defectives, (b) family tension, types of families, homes and parents (c) schools, communities and other social factors
- (4) deviations and deviants—types. A Crime and criminal—juvenile and adult—causes and punishment (i) juvenile delinquent—heredity and environment, (ii) physical and personality conditions, (iii) treatment and rehabilitation
- B Sex Offenders
- C Chronic Alcoholics and drug addicts
- D Prostitutes
- E Suicide
- F Social destitute—unemployed industrial workers and others
- (5) (a) court atmosphere, (b) prison, (c) parole, (d) probation, (e) reformatory school

The following books are prescribed for this paper —

- 1 Social Pathology—Lamert 2 Social Disorganisation—Elliot Merrill 3 Educational Psychology (chapter XX)—Gates Tresild Challman Mc. Conne 4 Criminology and Penology—Gillin 5 Introduction to Sociology—Gillin and Gillin 6 Juvenile Delinquency—Tappan 7 Principles of Criminology—Sutherland 8 The Crime Problem—Reckless and Walter 9 Social Pathology—Quen and Gruener 10 Social Pathology—Brown 11 The Young Delinquent—Cyril Burt. 12. The Sub-normal Mind—Cyril Burt

13 The Backward Child—Cyril Burt 14 Adolescence—Malm and Jamison 15 Mental Deficiency—Samason 16 Parent Child Relationship—Symonds

Criminology under Law

Criminology does form a part of law of crimes. Motive and intention are essential ingredients of an offence. The motive cannot always be proved and it is, under certain set of circumstances, presumed. But the intention has to be proved. The course of law—whether spread over two years or three years, is however so heavy that the teaching is confined to the Acts and commentaries and the case law. Some learned professors no doubt discuss the causes of crime but only a fringe of the various topics of criminology is touched because the main emphasis is on teaching the provisions of statutes and not the social or psychological factors. One of the optional subjects for the LL B degree is Criminology and Criminal Administration. Please also refer to LL B. and LL M courses given in chapter XVIII.

Criminology or social pathology has not acquired the status of a distinct discipline in the Indian universities except at Saugor and Madras, where postgraduate courses are provided. Nevertheless, the information collected in the preceding pages would show that criminology is at many places being taught—though as a subsidiary under another discipline. Details in regard to teaching of criminology have been provided by reference to some universities. These references are illustrative and not exhaustive.

CHAPTER XXVIII

INDUSTRIAL SOCIOLOGY

The UNESCO carried out an international survey on the teaching of the main disciplines in the social sciences and published a series of reports dealing with teaching of sociology, law, economics, etc. In December, 1954, the general conference of the UNESCO at its eighth session asked its secretariat to include survey on criminology, statistics, demography and the administrative sciences. In 1959-60 this series was further extended to other fields of the social sciences and in 1961, the UNESCO brought out a hand book on Industrial Sociology (in the series of the University Teaching of Social Sciences) by Mr J H Smith, lecturer in social science and administration at the London School of Economics and Political Science (University of London)

Industrial sociology is comparatively speaking a new term. But the subject is old and used to be studied and is being even now studied under industrial relations, labour and industrial relations etc. In fact the study of industrial sociology is the study of the psychological, sociological, economic and legal aspects of the industrial management and organisation, workers and work-groups, unions and industrial relations and industry and society.

In the questionnaire issued by Mr Smith, to collect data he stated that for the purpose of collecting information for the hand book "Industrial Sociology", it had been divided into four main fields of enquiry (a) management structure as a system of social relations, (b) the social structure of work groups, (c) management union relations (including the social structure of trade unionism), (d) the relation between industrial and other institutions (including the industry/community/society relationship).

It has been necessary to give the above excerpt as it would help us demarcate our scope of enquiry and discussion on the teaching of industrial sociology in our colleges.

In India, the universities, teaching social sciences cover the various aspects of industrial sociology to the teaching of economics, labour or general sociology and social work. The labour economics, the labour laws and business management courses variously cover the branches (referred to above), forming the component parts of industrial sociology. This will be clear by reference to the following subjects—which constitute the study of industrial sociology.

(a) social science of labour, (b) industrial society, (c) empirical studies of social relations in factories, hospitals, schools, colleges, government offices, and other civil organisation and in military units, etc., etc.

The 'industrial sociology' has been defined by E V Schneider as 'the whole field of social relations into which human

heings enter hy virtue of participating in the process of industrial production" ¹

Helen Gouldner defines it as "the study of social relations as they influence and are influenced by economic activity" ² Various other eminent authorities have given their own definitions into which we need not go here. The main purpose is only to show that the teaching of industrial sociology comes within the teaching of social sciences and is covered by the curricula of Indian universities.

What is industrial sociology and how it is covered by social sciences has been well defined by the two western celebrities as stated above. Along with pithy definitions we shall give a picturesque description—how different kinds of psychological patterns are found in labour, working in a unit. In the words of Mr J D Daboo, "The whole man comes to work—the physical man with his strength and weaknesses, his assets and handicaps, his well or malnourished body, his normally or abnormally functioning glands, his good eyes or poor ears, the mental man with his high or low level of intelligence, his fast or slow working defence mechanism, the emotional man—well or poorly trained in his use and control of anger, fear, jealousy and love, the economic man—poverty ridden, comfortably fed or from a home of too much luxury, the social man—who has not learnt the difficult art of getting along with himself in the presence of others, the family's favourite or the family's unwanted and the family's rejected man, the working man—the hungry man, the physically handicapped—all come to work" ³

In "Psychological Approach to Economic Problems—Psychological Aspects of Economic Activities", Shri H C Ganguli has distinctly demarcated the scope as follows. "Psychology seeks to study human behaviour and to formulate general laws of such behaviour. Economists deal with one specific aspect of human behaviour, namely, that connected with economic activities. At the risk of stating a truism, we would like to say that economic activities are governed not by objective economic forces but by such forces as they are perceived and interpreted by people in the light of their past experiences, present knowledge, needs and desires and future aspirations" ⁴

In B A, industrial sociology is not an independent paper but is covered by courses of study prescribed for sociology, economics etc. For example paper II of sociology in B A of the Bombay University includes—industrial labour, the industrial

1 *Sociology and Social Research*, Vol 42, No 1958, p 451

2 *Sociology* by L Broom and P Seitzick, 2nd Edition, p 503.

3 *Social Psychological Aspect of Labour Management* by J D Daboo, p 142
The Indian Journal of Labour Economics, Vol V, Nos 2/3

4 *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, Vol 5, Nos 2/3, p 142

evolution of India industrial legislation, trade unions, social security, village and cottage industries Paper II of economics in B A course of the Lucknow University includes problems of industrial labour, wages and wage regulation, unemployment, social security, labour, housing, industrial peace, etc

"Industrial sociology" constitutes one of the papers in the course of studies prescribed for M A in 'Sociology' or M A in 'Social Work' For example attention is invited to chapters XXV and XXVI this book

The Loyola College of Social Sciences is one of the educational institutions imparting instructions exclusively in social sciences It is at Trivandrum and prepares students for the Kerala University Paper VIII (b) pertains to Industrial Sociology, in the course of studies prescribed for M A in sociology The particulars are given below

Nature and scope of industrial sociology—work situation—principles and philosophical implications of work incentive and material rewards for work

Development of labour—its evolution—industrial order—development of factory system—division of labour—sources of labour, specialization in the production

Industrial management supervision system interests of management absenteeism, personnel management, merits and demerits—limitations

Industrial disputes and human relations to industry—strikes strains and stress between management and labourers—workers' union—role of State and society in maintaining social harmony—tripartite system—personality of the worker

Indian industry—nature and forms, Indian working class, methods of recruitment—problems of working class welfare programmes for Indian labourers, legal provision and its impact on labour class

Books

Melvin J Vincent New Foundations for Industrial Sociology

Radhakamal Mukerji Indian Working Class

Moore W E Industrial Relations and the Social Order

Coplow Sociology of Work

Durkheim Division of Labour in Society

Mayer Charles Industrial Relations in India

Miller and From Industrial Sociology

Freedman, G Industrial Society

Patna and some other universities have an independent course of studies and M A degree is awarded in Labour and Social Welfare

The industrial sociology as the two words imply is the sociology pertaining to the industrial personnel particularly of the labour, who constitute the 'masses' and not the top management, who constitute the 'classes'. No Indian university has Master's course in Industrial sociology as a separate and distinct discipline but the study is spread under the various co related disciplines or as stated earlier the teaching covers Industrial Sociology but the discipline is named "Labour and Social Welfare" and M A degree is awarded. In order, however, to give an idea we are giving below particulars of papers the *Master of Labour Welfare Degree* at the Gujarat University, Ahmedabad.

There are eight papers I Labour Economics and Statistics II Social and Industrial Psychology III Industrial Organisation and Finance IV Labour Movement V Labour Legislation I VI Labour Legislation II VII Personnel Management and Industrial Relations VIII Labour Welfare. Besides 100 marks are reserved for Viva Voce and another 100 for practical work.

In order to furnish the details of teaching in industrial sociology particulars of teaching in the discipline at the Tata Institute of Social Sciences are given.

Management and Labour Welfare

Descriptions of Courses (Tata Institute of Social Sciences)

I Sociology

The study of sociology and its importance for social workers, relationship of sociology to other social sciences, types of social systems—sub human, human, concepts used in a sociological analysis of institutions, society and the individual, the process of socialization, the process of social control, the problem of deviance, some social institutions—marriage, family, religion, caste, education, social differentiation—regional differentiation—rural, urban, the phenomenon of sub cultures—class, race nationality, relationship between social differentiation and stratification, social change—the process of urbanisation and bureaucratisation in India, social problems.

II Psychology

Nature and scope of psychology, methods of psychology, motivation, frustration and conflicts, defence mechanisms, emotions and emotional behaviour, perception—attention—social perception, learning—habit formation, remembering and forgetting, intelligence, heredity and environment, maturation and development, personality—significance of childhood—stages of development—individual in a group, leadership, principles of propaganda, mental health—mental illnesses, psychological testing, problems of adolescence, problems of adulthood, problems of ageing, psychology and social work.

III Economics

Scope and definition of economics, its relationship with social sciences and with social work, stages of economic development from hunting and fishing stage to modern factory system, economic and social problems created by modern economy, economics of underdeveloped countries, growth economics, nature, meaning and criteria of underdevelopment, nature of India's underdevelopment, the Five-Year Plans, financial resources, price policy, the population problem, the problems of rural economy, community development, industrial development, the labour problems, employment and unemployment; co operation, allocation for social and welfare services, alternative economic systems, capitalism, socialism and communism, Gandhian economics

IV Industrial and Labour Economics

Role of industry in nation's economy Industrialisation and economic development Mercantile economy and capitalism Growth of entrepreneurship and modern industry in India since 1850 The role of the managing agency system The rise of Indian business communities Growth of the employers' federations The climate for industrial development. Industrial organisation and finance Concentration of control Size, ownership and control of firms Structure of industry Competition monopoly and imperfect competition Production costs, markets and prices Company finance Financing agencies Stock exchanges, commercial banks industrial banks and special industrial institutions, investment trusts, finance corporations, World bank, International Finance Corporation Savings, investment and capital formation State aid Evolution of State industrial policy Regulation and control of industry Industries and Plan Public versus private sector Problems of nationalised industries Capital versus consumption goods industries Large scale versus small scale industries The role of the medium scale industries Industrial co operatives Economic and social problems of small scale industries

Nature and scope of Labour Economics Science of Welfare Economics and its application to Labour Labour Problems of a developing economy Industrialism and industrial man Evolution of the labour problem Economics of employment Labour market Supply and demand aspects Characteristics of the labour force Commitment and structuring of labour Labour force as a part of the population Extent and composition of the Indian Labour Force Unemployment and underemployment nature and scope of the problem, theories of unemployment, types of unemployment. Full employment Employment Service Organisation Migration, absenteeism and labour turnover Productivity—definition, measures and measurement. Economic problems of rationalisation and automation

Economics of wages, Development of a rational wage system Scientific wage determination Wage theories Labour and the theory of value from Smith to Marx Methods of wage payment Wage differentials Wage regulation Wage incentives Components of earnings Wage policy for a developing economy

Economics of social security, labour welfare and labour relations Role of trade unions in economic development Labour policy Gandhian approach to labour problems Labour problem under capitalism, socialism and communism

V Social Case Work

History and development of social casework method in India and abroad, definitions of social casework, contributions of social sciences to social casework, contributions of religion to social casework, contributions of psycho analysis to social casework, inter-relations of social casework and other [methods of social work, concepts of case, person and problem in the practice of social casework, nature of blockings that affect a person's problem solving efforts, methods of case study, diagnostic and evaluation processes, methods of treatment, caseworker client relationship, concept of authority in the practice of social casework, interviewing in social casework, generic and specific aspects of social casework settings, primary and secondary settings for the practice of social casework, types of social case recording, values of social case recording for the agency, worker and supervisor, cultural factors and their bearing on the practice of social casework, preventive and promotive aspects of social casework practice, nature of community resources in India, (Select case records are studied 15 hours are devoted to case discussions)

VI Social Group Work

Social group work as a method of social work, historical development of group work, role of group in personality development, social process in groups, basic concepts of group work, principles and method, role of professional social worker in helping groups to utilise group relations, programmes and leadership for their development, leadership process in groups, characteristics of various age groups and their problems of group relations, programme as a tool in group work, inherent values of certain programme media, group work in various agency settings, community centres, children's institutions, hospitals, administration and group work

VII Social Research and Statistics

Science and scientific method, scope and meaning of social research, its relationship with social sciences and social work, social work research, its need and scope in social

work field, interdisciplinary approach in social work research, planning and execution of social surveys, stages in research project from selection of topic to submission of report, time schedule regarding research project, use of the library, research and reference services, selection of the topic and formulation of the problem, preliminary research, formulating, testing and development of hypothesis, research design, types of research studies, methods of data collection, documents and bibliographical survey, observation—participant and nonparticipant, controlled and noncontrolled, schedule, questionnaire and interview, case studies and life histories, projective techniques, pre testing the tools, study, processing data, editing and scrutiny, classification, coding tabulation and frequency distributions, report writing—chapterisation, bibliography, index, documentation, footnotes, writing style and preparation of abstract, importance, scope and application of social statistics and quantification of social data, mathematical background, graphic presentation; measures of central tendency, measures of dispersion, correlation, sampling and sampling errors

VIII. Family and Child Welfare

Changing family patterns in India—a historical review, analysis of family life in India—its strength and limitations, place of child in relation to family, society and culture, concept of family organisation and disorganisation—contributing factors, problems of child in his own home, problems of the child deprived of normal home life such as destitution, dependency, beggary, etc., evolving concepts of family and child welfare programme—the children's charter of rights, family and child welfare programme in India—a brief review of its nature, scope, financial implications, etc.

IX. Labour Legislation I and II and Labour Case Law

Labour Legislation I

Introduction to Labour Legislation, survey of Labour Legislation since Factories Act 1881, classification of Central and State Labour Laws—Establishment legislation, Social Security Acts, Wage legislation, Trade Unions and Industrial Relations Acts, Welfare and Miscellaneous legislation, chronological developments in labour legislation up to date, judicial setup and administration of industrial and labour judiciary, process of the administration of labour laws

Laws in relation to social values and social policy, legislation in furtherance of social justice, the relation of public opinion and law, the legislative process, the role of the social worker in promoting social legislation, general structure of courts and the judicial procedure, type organisation and administration, introduction to the Code of Criminal Procedure and Criminal Procedure Code

The following Acts are studied in detail Factory Act 1948 and Rules, Industrial employment (Standing Orders) Act 1946 and Model Standing Orders, Bombay Shops and Establishment Act 1948 and Rules, Employment exchanges (Compulsory Notification of Vacancies) Act 1959, Apprentices Act 1961 and Rules Perspective of Social Security legislation

Labour Legislation II

Social Security Laws—Workmen's Compensation Act 1923, Maternity Benefit Act 1961, Employees' State Insurance Act 1948 and Rules and Regulations, Employees' Provident Funds Act 1952 and Scheme, Unemployment Insurance, Personal Injuries (Compensation Insurance) Act 1963 and Scheme and Rules

Perspective of Industrial Relations legislation—Indian Trade Unions Act 1926, Industrial Disputes Act 1947 and Rules, Bombay Industrial Relations Act 1946 and Rules

Wage Legislation—Payment of Wages Act 1936 and Rules, Payment of Bonus Act 1965, Minimum Wages Act 1948 and Rules

Welfare Legislation—Mica Mines and Coal Mines Labour Welfare Funds Acts (1946, 1947), Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act 1953 etc

Plantation Labour Act 1951, Indian Mines Act 1952

Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act 1948, Motor Transport Workers Act, 1961

Current labour bills, if any, and latest amendments to Central and State Labour Acts

All Acts are to be studied in detail with reference to their rules, regulations, notifications etc

Labour Case Law

Principles of industrial jurisprudence, study of important judgments delivered by the Supreme Court, High Courts, Industrial Tribunals, Industrial Courts and Labour Courts, latest cases regarding transfers, promotions, dismissals, discharges, retrenchment, retirement wages, allowances, gratuity, bonus, etc are presented and discussed

X Introduction to Labour Problems (Orientation course)

Industrial Evolution in India its effects on social and political life evolution of the labour problem, labour problems of an underdeveloped economy, main labour problems of Indian industries, important characteristics of some major industries like cotton and jute textiles, iron and steel, coal and mines, plantations sugar, chemicals, oils, pharmaceuticals, engineering, cement, academic disciplines for study of labour problems

(industrial economics, labour economics, industrial sociology, industrial psychology, labour legislation and labour statistics), functional fields in labour (labour welfare, industrial relations and personnel management), inter-disciplinary and inter functional approach to labour problems

XI Psychiatric Information

Child—Emotional needs of the child, need for security, growth and development, recognition, response, companionship of parents, play and concrete parental ideals, parent child relationship parental overprotection, rejection, dominance and submissiveness, attacking and withdrawing types of disorders stealing lying truancy, aggressiveness, bullying, teasing, destructiveness sex offences, shyness sensitiveness, seclusiveness, day-dreaming, absentmindedness nervousness, night terrors sleep talking and sleep walking, habit problems—stammering, fidgeting, bedwetting thumb sucking, nail biting, excessive masturbation mental deficiency juvenile psychoses, child guidance movement, child guidance clinics, roles of psychiatrist, paediatrist, psychologist and psychiatric social worker

Adult—Brief review of the history of psychiatry, causes of mental illness, the role of anxiety, various manifestations of mental illness, symptoms course and treatment of different illnesses, psychoses schizophrenia manic-depressive psychosis, organic psychosis, etc., difference between psychosis and psychoneurosis, clinical features of various types of psychoneurosis, psychosomatic disorders psychopathic personality, drug addiction, brief summary of different lines of treatment, psychotherapy, physical therapies, brain operations occupational therapy, role of social worker in the study and treatment of psychiatric disorders

XII Labour Research and Statistics (including Labour Research Laboratory)

Labour Literature (Indian and foreign), Labour Research in India—its history, prospects and problems, preconditions for active research, agencies conducting labour research, research in fields of employment, wages and productivity, welfare and industrial research, case studies in industrial relations priorities in labour research, methodological aspects of labour research, research and planning, industry studies, research in business administration, market research, management research, production management research, problem areas in industry, some important Indian and foreign labour surveys.

Labour statistics, general wage census, wage statistics, census of manufacturing returns, national sample surveys, labour force statistics, employment and unemployment statistics, productivity studies, statistical indicators to labour, family

budgets, consumer price index, industrial relations—trade unions and trade disputes, measures to improve labour statistics in India

Labour Research Laboratory provides training to students either through assignments or through assigned participation in research schemes, in co operation with the Labour Research Centre of the Institute

XIII Labour Administration and Social Security

Organisation and administration of the Central and State Labour Offices, machinery for the enforcement of various labour laws, non statutory machinery of labour administration, labour policy of the Central and State Governments, role of the State in labour matters—in industrial relations, wage regulation, labour welfare and social security, the various autonomous and semi autonomous bodies in the labour field

Concepts and scope of social security, social assistance and social insurance history of social security in foreign countries and in India, the ILO standards, provisions relating to workmen's compensation maternity benefits employees State insurance, provident fund, lay off and retrenchment compensation unemployment insurance and integrated social security scheme, comprehensive social security, mutual insurance and welfare work

XIV Personnel Management

Concept, definition and scope of Personnel Management modern trends in Personnel Management as part of management movement, social work orientation in Personnel Management

Industrial organisation and its functional setup role of Personnel Department in the organisational structure line and staff divisions in industry and the modern concepts in their relationships, changing personnel role in the context of line departments

Job study including job designation, description, specifications, classifications, etc, Significance of job descriptions for different personnel functions

Sources and methods of personnel recruitment and selection techniques, stages of recruitment procedure, modern trends in selection process and its tools Induction and placement, programmes of induction in industrial organisations and their importance

Job Analysis and Job Evaluation, its methods and uses Motion and Time studies and their significance in modern industry, work study and its role in productivity

Wage and salary administration and its problems, methods of wage payment, Piece rate and Time rate and their relative merits in wage payment, differentials and incremental time scales, allowances, production bonus and incentive payments,

Different types of wage incentives—Halsey, Rowan, Gantt, Emerson etc

Non financial incentives and their importance in retainment of personnel, retainment as a basic function of a progressive Personnel policy, its responsibilities

Problems of discipline and supervision on the shopfloor, grievances and their settlement, firstline supervision and its responsibilities in Personnel Management, disciplinary proceedings in industry, social work orientation in first line supervision, supervisory training in social work methods and their scope

Appraisal and merit rating, their significance for Personnel functions, e.g., Promotion, Transfer, Training etc Criteria for promotion, merit vs seniority promotion policies of different organisations

Communication and consultation machinery Working of communication systems, their value in Personnel Administration, statutory and non statutory consultative machinery in industry.

Personnel records and statistics and their uses, retirement procedures and benefits Exit interview, post retirement responsibilities for housing and health of employees

Current trends in Personnel Management in India, emphasis on manpower planning and development, Personnel Management in relation to Labour Policy

XV Personnel and Industrial Psychology

Meaning and scope of Personnel and Industrial Psychology, job and worker analysis—its uses, sources of information and techniques, job and worker specification, recruitment—sources of available labour, the selection procedure, use of information blanks, interviewing—common pitfalls of interview, board interview, effective interviewing, use of psychological tests in industry—types of tests, essentials of a 'good' psychological test, development of testing programme in industry, induction—implications of induction, training in industry—determining training needs, psychological principles of training, evaluating training programmes, merit rating—methods of merit rating, organising merit rating programme, psychological implications of merit rating, Job Evaluation—its methods, psychological implications of Job Evaluation, fatigue, boredom and monotony—assessment of fatigue, alleviation of fatigue, accidents in industry—accident proneness, developing safety attitudes, launching safety programmes

Industrial social psychology—concepts, kinds of interpersonal relations in industry, sociometry, factors in worker satisfaction and dissatisfaction, consequences of frustration in industry, psychological implications of delegation and control, industrial conflicts—psychosocial factors in industrial conflicts,

morale in industry—indicators of high and low morale, assessment of morale, implications of morale for management, leadership in industry—functions of leaders, effective leadership behaviour, leadership training, communication in industry—its importance media of communication, principles of effective communication

Functions of industrial psychologist

XVI Industrial Relations and Trade Unions

Industry and its relations to society, concept and scope of industrial relations Objectives of labour and management, changing patterns of industrial relations in India, development of relations from status to contract

Industrial relations at factory level, role of standing orders and the problems in their administration, grievances and their settlement, model grievance procedure, problems of indiscipline on the shopfloor and disciplinary proceedings in industry, domestic enquiry

Joint consultation at plant level—works committees and other joint committees their role in industrial relations, employees' association with management, worker's participation in management joint management councils

Industrial disputes in Indian industries, causes and effects of industrial conflict, strikes and lockouts strike as a labour weapon settlement of disputes by negotiations conciliation, arbitration and adjudication, industrial disputes legislation in India and abroad non legal machinery for settlement of disputes, collective bargaining and collective agreements

ILO and its influence on Labour relations, Indian Labour Conference and its impact on industrial relations, tripartite labour machinery and labour policy in India, changing trends in industrial relations since Independence from courts to codes, codes of conduct and discipline, industrial truce resolutions

State and industrial relations in India, public sector and its industrial relations, evaluation and implementation machinery at the Centre and in the States, future of labour management relations and Personnel/Labour Officer's role in labour management co operation

Labour movement and trade union movement as the result of modern industrialisation process, the various phases of these movements, their relationship with political movement and the co operation movement, important characteristics of the labour movement on certain foreign countries like UK, USA, Germany, Sweden and USSR, international labour movements, the ILO, WFTU and the ICFTU, labour movement in developing economies, labour movement in India since 1875, its role in early labour legislation, origin and growth of Indian trade union movement, purpose and functions of

trade unions social responsibilities of trade unions, methods of trade unions, structure and administration, finance and membership, federations of unions, union management relations, relations with works assistances and with labour officers, role of unions in wage determination, industrial relations, labour welfare and productivity, the recognition problem, closed shop, open shop and check off system, role of unions in economic development and national policies Trade union administration as business management, role of public opinion in trade union activities—strikes, demonstrations, etc

XVII Labour Welfare

Historical perspective, changing concepts of labour, management and welfare, concepts, scope, philosophies and principles of labour welfare, development of labour welfare in India, Gandhian approach to labour welfare, modern approach to labour welfare Origin of labour officer, welfare officer and personnel officer, plant lay out, house keeping, working conditions in the factory, Safety—administration, safety committees, safety programmes, accidents—causes prevention, statistics and records, industrial health—industrial hygiene, occupational diseases—treatment and prevention, canteen organisation and administration, Creche organisation and administration, credit and consumers' co operatives in industrial organisations, other welfare amenities—recreational, educational etc, workers' education, industrial housing—administration and management facilities in the housing colony such as educational, recreational health, marketing, etc., problems and grievances of the residents, their redressal, different committees and their working, other services provided, problems of industrial housing

Training qualifications, status and functions of the welfare officer in industry, role of welfare officer and social worker in industry

Welfare work by the State, management and trade unions

Labour Welfare Board—administration and organisation of welfare centres—programmes and welfare activities conducted by the Board

XVIII Social Work in Industrial Settings

Concept and function of social work in industrial settings, scope of social work in factory, establishment, housing and community institutions of industrial organisations, tasks of social work in industry, special problems such as absenteeism, indebtedness, indiscipline, grievances accidents on the shopfloor etc—role of social work in the treatment of such problems

Industrial housing and community organisation, group work processes in factory and industrial settings, special services for Family planning, Community Development in industry,

counselling for individual and family problems, referrals to other agencies, liaison with outside social welfare and other related agencies

Recent development in industrial social work, social work practice in ESI Scheme including ESI Hospital, counselling in Employment Exchanges, Employment of physically handicapped, rehabilitation of the disabled and emotionally ill employees

Future of social work in industrial settings in India

XIX Principles and Practices of Management

Emergence of Management as a distinct factor of production, evolution of management thought from early times—Contributions of the Army, the Roman Catholic Church and of Taylor, Gilbreths, Gantt, Follet, Mayo, Roethlisberger, C Benard and others

Nature of management an art, a science, a profession, management as the decision making process, case studies

Fundamental elements of management process planning—objectives—general and specific, types of plans, responsibility for plans

Organising principles of organisation—Scalar principles, principle of departmentation, unity of command, span of control, principles of simplicity principles of continuity, and stability—Organisation charts—internal organisation—nature of authority in business—types of authority—the line the staff and the functional authority, causes of conflicts and reconciliation Case studies

Directing giving orders—attitude of subordinates towards orders skill in giving orders—techniques for simplification of orders Case studies

Co ordinating and Controlling need for co ordination and control essential steps in establishing the control process Case studies

Motivating motives behind work—physical psychological and social needs of employees, methods to satisfy these needs, adequate monetary rewards—job enlargement, participation—social organisation Case studies

Management Training skills necessary for a manager—decision making, communicating, leading human relations skills, techniques for developing managerial skills case discussion, discussion leading—role-playing, management games

XX Industrial Management and Administration

The industrial organisation the board of directors the managing director, the executive committee, the functions of the

top management, the company secretary—his duties and responsibilities, the Companies Act 1956

Plant management plan organisation—general manager, production manager, personnel manager, quality control manager, industrial engineer maintenance engineer, stores controller, cost accountant, security officer, specific functions of each—the nature of their authority—their inter relations—conflicts and co ordination

Materials management responsibility of the purchase manager, purchase policies and procedures, inventory control, organisation and control of stores, relations with production and inspection departments

Marketing management production oriented management in the past, present trend towards market orientation functions of marketing management, sales organisation and management, market and motivation research, advertising and sales promotion, economics and ethics of advertising

Management of research importance of research and development, organisation and cost of research, problem of control of scientists and technologists, manpower and career planning and development, O and M in Management Research

Financial management the role of the accountant—control through budgeting, relation between the accountant and the departmental heads, elementary accountancy with special reference to balance sheets, book keeping

Office management functions of the office inward, outward, correspondence, dispatch, Filing and Records

Public relations relations with customers, dealers and distributors employees, general public and government and its agencies Tools of public relations, why public relations and what public relations can and cannot achieve

XXI Personnel Training and Development

Personnel training and development as a postwar concept industry, its origin and objectives, role of personnel development, the context of personnel management, organisation of by the Board training in industry for different categories and XVIII personnel personnel development in relation to national employment and educational system, State and Concept in industries, private industrial organisations and their of social workers, professional associations and institutions and institutions courses in Britain, trade unions and training, Industry special in U K, TWI concept of training for super-indiscipline, general concept of staff college in industry, its social work in position and methods of work, Administrative Industrial, Henley and Hyderabad, "Adjustment to work processes in Youth Clubs in Britain, role of youth for Family planning and vocational guidance, group process as

a medium of leadership training , syndicates, seminars, case studies, sociodrama, role playing, panel discussions, project assignments, etc , group discussion as a training technique , its nature, scope and uses for personnel development , audio visual aids in training , leadership development in industry current practices and trends of personnel development in Indian industry, application and adaptation of modern concepts , training programmes of industrial organisations in India , Central Labour Institute , professional training organisations and management consultancy services , personnel development and its future possibilities in India

Industrial Sociology

Industrialisation and society Division of Labour and specialization Cultural factors affecting work, labour supply and recruitment Automation and its consequences for human relations in industry

The Indian labour force Social background of workers and management Occupational distribution and mobility

Social relations within industry Types of human relations Structures of organizations Behaviour systems Bureaucratic organization in industry/working groups and work Informal association in formal settings Management as leadership

Nature of work in modern society Incentives, rewards and frustrations in work settings

Structure of trade unions Trade union democracy Trade union leadership Attitudes of workers to trade unions and union leadership

CHAPTER XXIX

ANTHROPOLOGY

The first part of the book deals with teaching of social anthropology by two eminent authors Dr G S Ghurye and Dr D N Majumdar both learned and eminent authorities in their subjects. Dr D N Majumdar is unfortunately no more. Dr Ghurye has dealt with the teaching of sociology, social psychology and social anthropology—all the three together, in one chapter, because they are allied and there are common inter-disciplinary areas. Dr Majumdar has dealt with social anthropology, exclusively.

Social anthropology is one of the branches of anthropology and a wider term like anthropology or cultural anthropology (with which we are more concerned as a branch of discipline affecting the social behaviour) would be broader in its scope to cover the various facets of teaching in this discipline. According to Morris E. Opler of Cornell University, '*Cultural anthropology is the study of those aspects of human behaviour which can be best accounted for by tradition, learning, and invention rather than by innate or biologically inherited qualities*'. Edward B. Tylor in his work *Primitive Culture* defines 'culture' as '*that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*'. We shall therefore deal in this chapter with the teaching of cultural anthropology and with social anthropology as a branch of cultural anthropology. Due to Dr Majumdar's association with the Lucknow University (starting as a lecturer teaching anthropology to B.A. and M.A. classes in 1928-29 and rising gradually to occupying the exalted post of the Vice-chancellor of that University), the teaching of anthropology there has received quite good attention and although anthropology including social anthropology is being taught at a number of colleges constituting the various universities or affiliated to them, we are inclined for the above reason to give details of teaching at the Lucknow University which would convey fairly elaborate idea about what is being taught in the subject in the Indian universities.

ANTHROPOLOGY

B.A. Part I

~~Part I, spec.~~ Prehistoric Archaeology

Prehistory and its relation with other sciences
Scope of Prehistory with special reference to Cenozoic
The Geological strata period and Glacial Age, Study of the Palaeo-
epoch—Pleistocene, Neolithic cultures (illustrated with findings
lithic, Mesolithic and Palaeolithic.
from Europe), India.

Books recommended

Burkitt *Old Stone Age* Burkitt *Our Early Ancestors* Leakey *Adam's Ancestors* Oakley *Man the Tool Maker* Piggott, Stuart *Prehistoric India* Wheeler, R E Mortimer *Early India and Pakistan* Majumdar D N and Gopala Sarana *Praguthas* (in Hindi) Notes and Queries on Anthropology (selected chapters)

Paper II—Ethnography and Material Culture of Indian Tribes
Geographical, linguistic ethnic and cultural background of tribes in India General Cultural study of KHASA, ORAON, and APATANI Study of the following aspects of the material culture of tribes in India Food procurement (gathering, hunting, fishing, herding, shifting and settled cultivation)
Clothing and Adornment

Dwellings

Fire making techniques

Books recommended

Lips *Origin of Things* Forde *Habitat, Economy and Society* Majumdar *Races and Cultures of India* Ghurye *Scheduled Tribes* Elwin *The Abariginals* Mathur, Vidyarthi and Singh *Manav Shastra ki Raoprekha* (in Hindi), *The Adibasi* Fuchs *The Origin of Man and His Culture* Notes and Queries on Anthropology

Paper III—Practicals

Details are supplied by the Department Material Culture and Prehistory Tools

B A Part II

Paper I—Social Anthropology

Definition and scope of Social Anthropology Study of the following basic concepts in Anthropology Culture Society, Civilization, Evolution, Diffusion, Function, Culture-Change
Study of the following based on data from tribes in India and comparative data from elsewhere Marriage Family, Clan and Lineage, Kinship, Association, Economy, Religion and Magic Totemism

Caste in India

Books recommended

Jacobs and Stern *Outlines of Anthropology* Mathur, Vidyarthi and Singh *Manav Shastra ki Raoprekha* (in Hindi) Lewis *Primitive Society* Majumdar and Madan *An Introduction to Social Anthropology* Duhe *Manav Vigyan* (in Hindi) Fuchs *Origin of Man and His Culture*

Paper II—Physical Anthropology

Definition and Scope of Physical Anthropology .

The relationship of man with Primates, with special reference to anthropoid selected fossil (monkeys) apes Selected human fossil types, Australopithecine, Pithecanthropus, Sinanthropus, Heidelberg, Neanderthal, Cromagnon Concept of race Principal criteria of Ethnic Differentiation, Classification and distribution of the three major Races of the world Racial classification of India Elementary Human Genetics

Books recommended

Howells *Mankind in the Making* Conchia *Human Genetics* Majumdar *Races and Cultures of India* Mathur, Vidyarthi and Singh *Manav Shastra k Rooprekha* (in Hindi) Sonia Cole *Races of Man Handbook of Evolution* British Museum *History of Primates*

Paper III—Practical

(Somatometry and Somatoscopy)

Details are supplied by the Department

B A Hons (First Year)

In addition to the *three* papers of the B A Part I course, candidates are required to offer the following special paper

Monograph

Books recommended

Majumdar *Caste and Communication in an Indian Village*

B A Hons (Second Year)

In addition to the *three* papers of the B A II course, candidates are required to offer the following special paper

Practicals

Somatometry, Somatoscopy and Craniometry

Details are supplied by the department

B A Hons (Third Year)

In addition to the *five* papers of M A part—I course, candidates are required offer the following special paper

Paper VI—Primitive Economy

Books recommended

1 Herskovits *Economic Anthropology* 2. Thurnwald *Economics of Primitive Communities* 3 Firth *Primitive Polynesian Economy* 4 Firth *Primitive Economics of the Maori of New Zealand*

M A. Part I

Paper I—Physical Anthropology

Definition and scope, Historical development Man's place in the animal kingdom with special reference to his relationship with Primates, Fossil monkeys and Fossil man

Principles of genetics, 'race', criteria of ethnic differentiation, Racial history of the world, Racial classification and racial history of India

Books recommended

Hooton *Up from the Ape* Ashley Montagu *Physical Anthropology* Coon *Races of the World* Boule and Vallous *Fossil Men* Comas *Manual of Physical Anthropology* Le Gros Clark *Fossil Evidence for Human Evolution* Peter, B Hamond (ed) *Physical Anthropology and Archaeology* Collin *Elements of Genetics*

Paper II—Social Anthropology

Definition and Scope Dimensions and Perspectives, Comparative Study of Social Economic, Political and Religious Organizations and institutions in primitive societies

Books recommended

Keesing *Cultural Anthropology* Evans Pritchard *Social Anthropology* Firth *Elements of Social Organization* Redcliffe Brown *Structure and Function in Primitive Society* Redcliffe Brown *Method in Social Anthropology* Eggan (ed) *Social Anthropology of North American Indians*. Murdock *Social Structure*

Paper III—Prehistoric Archaeology

Definition and scope, Geological Eras with special reference to Cenozoic epoch, Stratigraphy, Methods of Dating

Palaeolithic, Mesolithic and Neolithic cultures of Europe, India and Africa Harappa culture and Megaliths

Books recommended

Burkitt *Our Early Ancestors* Burkitt *Old Stone Age* Leakey *Adam's Ancestors* M Cathcart Borer *Mankind in the Making* Wheeler *Indian Valley Civilization* Piggott *Prehistoric India* Zeuner *Dating the Past* Sankalia *Tool Making Techniques* Zeuner *Pleistocene Period*

Paper IV—Practicals

- 1 Genealogies, Interview guides, Schedules and questionnaires, Case Studies, Attitude scales
- 2 Material Culture, Tools and techniques related to food procurement, fire making, Transport, Clothing and Personal adornment
- 3 Prehistoric tools of stone and bone

Paper V—Practicals

- 1 Somatometry and Somatoscopy

2. Craniometry

3. Osteology and osteometry of long bones

M A Part II

Group A—Advanced Social Anthropology

Paper I—Theories of Culture and Society

- (a) Anthropological theories of the concept, origin, growth and change of culture (Morgan, Tylor, Elliot-Smith, Boas, Rivers, Kroeber, Malinowski, Benedict, Mead, Kluckhohn and Linton)
- (b) Anthropological theories of the concept, origin, growth and change of society (Durkheim, Rivers, Radcliffe Brown, Evans Pritchard, Nadel, Fortes, Leach, Levie Strauss, Redfield)

Books recommended

Lowie *History of Ethnological Theory* Radcliffe Brown *Andaman Islanders* Tylor *Primitive Culture* Benedict *Potterns of Culture* Linton *Culture Background of Personality* Kroeber (ed.) : *Anthropology Today* Coser and Rosenberg (ed.) *Sociological Theory* Radcliffe Brown *Method in Social Anthropology* Nadel *Theory of Social Structure* Nadel *Foundations of Social Anthropology*, Redfield *Little Community*.

Paper II—People and Societies in India

Prehistoric Protohistoric, Historic and Ethnic Background
Society in Contemporary India—Tribal and Rural Family and Marriage, Inheritance of Property, Communal Organization, Religious Beliefs and Practices

Social Change in India Growth of cities and industries,
Social Legislation, Culture Contacts

Books recommended

Mayer *Caste and Kinship in Central India* Gordan, D H *Pre-historic Background of Indian Culture* Hutton *Caste in India* Ghurye *Caste and Occupation in India* Majumdar *Races and Cultures of India* Marriot (ed.) *Village India* Dube *India's Changing Villages* Aiyappan and Balaratnam *Society in India* Singer (ed.) *Traditional India*, Kapadia *Family and Marriage in India* Vidyarthi (ed.) *Aspects of Religion in India*, Epstein *Economic Development and Social Change in South India*

Paper III (a)—Material Culture and Museum Methods

1. Comparative study of the material culture of primitive peoples in respect of food procurment, clothing and adornment, housing and transport and fire making techniques
2. Museum Methods

Books recommended

Forde *Habitat, Economy and Society*. Beals and Hoyer *Introduction to Anthropology* Lips *The Origin of Things* Singer (ed) *History of Technology* Basu *The Material existence of Man* Notes and Queries on Anthropology

Or

Paper III (b)—Applied Anthropology and Community Development in India

Nature and Scope of Applied Anthropology Applications of Anthropological knowledge in the field of Government Industry, War, Medicine Economic Development of under developed areas and tribal affairs (with material from U S A , U K , Africa and India).

Community Development in India , its philosophy, history, programme and achievements

Books recommended

Kluckhohn *Mirror for Man* Kroeber (ed) *Anthropology Today* (selected chapters) Spicer *Human Problems in Technological Change* Mair *Studies in Applied Anthropology* Dube *India's Changing Villages* Mead (ed) *Cultural Patterns and Technological Changes*

Or

Monographs

Evans Pritchard *Nuer* Malinowski *The Argonauts of the Western Pacific*. Leach *Political Systems of Highland Burma* Kluckhohn *The Navaho*

Paper IV—Practicals

- (a) Report on Field Work conducted by the Department
- (b) Lab Work on Research Methods in Social Anthropology and Sociometric Models

Paper V—*Viva Voce*

Group B—Advanced Physical Anthropology

Paper I—Human Evolution

Evolutionary Processes , Comparative anatomy of the Primates , Palaeontology of the Hominidae

Books recommended

Le Gros Clark *The Antecedents of Man* Le Gros Clark *Fossil Evidence for Human Evolution* Boule and Vellois *Fossil Men* Carter *Hundred Years of Evolution* Dobzhansky *Evolution, Genetics and Man* Weidenreich *Apes, Giants and Men*

Paper II—Variations in Man

Genetic Ratio, Medical Genetics, Genetics applied to populations, races and species Heredity and Environments, Eugenics
Methods of studying variation

Books recommended

Curt Stern *Principles of Human Genetics* Neel and Schull
Human Heredity Dun and Dobzhansky *Heredity, Race and Society* Osborn *Preface to Eugenics* C C Li *Population Genetics* D S Falconer *Quantitative Genetics*

Paper III (a)—Applied Physical Anthropology and Medical Anthropology

(a) Applied Anthropometry

(b) Applied Serology

(c) Forensic Science

(d) Palaeopathology, History of Medicine

Or

Paper III (a)—Peoples and Societies of India (Same as Paper II in Group A)

Or

Thesis

Paper IV—Practicals

(a) Dermatoglyphics

(b) Serology

(c) Osteometry

(d) Hair sectioning

Paper V—Viva Voce (including a field report)

Group C—Prehistoric Archaeology

Paper I—Early Man's Environments

Geochronology, Methods of relative and absolute dating and their applications to Prehistory definition of the Pleistocene, Plio Pleistocene boundary, theories of the cause of quaternary Ice Age, mammalian life during the Pleistocene, Principles of Pleistocene stratigraphy, Glacial inter glacial and Pluvial interpluvial cycles and their relation Formation of Laterite and its significance with special reference to Indian conditions

Books recommended

Zeuner *The Pleistocene Period* *Dating the Past* Leakey *Adam's Ancestors* Flint *Glacial Geology and the Pleistocene Epoch* Wright *The Quaternary Ice Age* Zeuner *Prehistory in India* Kroeber (ed) *Anthropology Today* (selected chapters) Osborne *Men of the Old Stone Age* Sahn *Man in Evolution*

Paper II—Human Evolution

(Same as Paper I in Group A)

Paper III – Prehistory in India and East Asia

Pleistocene climate fluctuations in India and Eastern and Southern Asia, a detailed study of the Palaeolithic of India and its comparison with the Palaeolithic of Burma, Java and China, mesolithic neolithic and Bronze age cultures of India, megaliths and their distributions in India

Books recommended

Zeuner *Prehistory in India, Pleistocene Chronology and Stone Age in Gujarat* De Terra et al *Studies on the Ice Age in India and the Associated Human Cultures* De Terra and Movius *Research on Early Man in Burma* Sankalia *Investigations into the Prehistoric Archaeology of Gujarat* MacCurdy *Early Man* (selected chapters) Ferguson *Stone Monuments of India*

Paper IV—Field work on a prehistoric site and a report based on it

Paper V—*Viva Voce*

Thus we observe that cultural anthropology includes social anthropology, being an essential and integral part of it. Some universities, however, provide for a complete course for M A in Social Anthropology and as a representative course of studies we are giving in the next chapter particulars of teaching for M A in Social Anthropology prescribed by Gujarat Viadya Peeth

CHAPTER XXX

SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

Anthropology can be divided into three sectors (i) physical (ii) cultural and (iii) social. Physical anthropology forms the base for the study of culture but in the latter the primary emphasis is not on the physiological aspect but on the cultural one. The Government of India has been carrying on anthropological survey of India. 'The All India Anthropological survey' Project started in 1960, proposed to undertake 12 measurements and several anthropological observations on the bodies of at least 60,000 individuals. Upto 1965 about 36,000 individuals had been measured in various States. Another project 'the All India craniometric survey' was undertaken by this Survey to examine and investigate the metric and non metric characteristics on the skulls of various ethnic types of India that are deposited in the museums and medical colleges throughout India. Longitudinal growth study with X ray photographs, genetic study, the excavation of human skeletons etc form the subject matter of physical anthropology. All this is to assist the study of the culture as it has developed through the ages. The various topics to be studied in this discipline may be summarised as follows:

Anthropology—physical, cultural and social—definition of culture—descriptive historical normative psychological structural and genitive. The nature of the culture—social heritage—components artifacts goods, technical processes ideas, habits, values—language transmission of culture—institutions—basic imperatives—instrumental or derived imperatives—family—marriage courtship—magic and myths—religion—art, savagery and barbarism—rise of civilisation etc. Most of these topics are included to social anthropology. So it is really difficult to isolate the threads of social anthropology interwoven with those of cultural anthropology. In fact, the cultural and the social sides are like the concave and the convex surfaces of the same object or we may say that the social anthropology is a branch of cultural anthropology—which is wider in scope and application. Therefore, the teaching of social anthropology is included in cultural anthropology. We are giving below the course of study prescribed by Gujarat Vidyapeeth for M. A. in social anthropology.

M. A. in Social Anthropology

(2 Year M. A. Degree Course)

There are 9 papers (eight papers and one dissertation) as per details given below:

- I Advanced Sociological Theories
- II Social Anthropology
- III (A) Tribal Welfare
(B) Tribal Dialect and Folklore

IV Indian Rural Social Institutions

V Research Methods

VI Tribal Economy

VII Ethnology.

VIII Monograph Studies

(1) Bhils of Gujarat.

(2) We, the Tikopia

(3) Dhebar Commission Report

IX. Dissertation—based on field work in a Tribal Area

One hundred marks in each of the above papers Total marks 900

Paper I Advanced Sociological TheoriesA *Fundamentals* 1 meaning scope and methods of sociology,
2 heredity and environment, individual, society and culture 3
social grouping and social stratificationB. *Advanced theories* 4 social thought, 5 social structure, 6
social control, 7 social change*Paper II* Social Anthropology1 Meaning, scope and methods of anthropology, and applied
anthropology 2. primitive culture, 3 primitive social organisa-
tion, 4 primitive way of life, economic behaviour—religion, law,
5. culture contact and culture conflict culture and personality.*Paper III* Tribal Welfare Tribal Dialect and Folklore

A Tribal Welfare (50 marks)

1 Tribal demography population and distribution, 2 consti-
tutional safeguards for tribals, 3. community development pro-
gramme (i) schedules areas, (ii) tribal development blocks, (iii)
approach to tribal welfare *adna* *panchshel*, (iv) welfare scheme
and programme measures and success, 4 philosophy and methods
of social work, 5 role of voluntary agencies, 6 traditional council
of *panchayat* *raj* in tribal areas, 7 problems of backward classes
in India (i) nature and approach. (ii) reformist movements and
socio-economic uplift, (iii) role and work of Mahatma Gandhi and
Tbakkar Bapa Nehru and Elwin

B Tribal Dialect and Folklore (50 marks)

1 what is language, 2 production of language, 3 structure of
language, 4 classification of languages in India. 5 language and
dialect (i) principles of phonetic, (ii) tribal dialects in general,
(iii) Bhili Garasia dialect of Gujarat, 6 tribal folklore*Paper IV* Indian Rural Social Institutions

1 Ethnic and linguistic groups in India

2. Rural social organisation

(1) habitat environ and type of settlements, (2) social stratification (i) origin of caste, (ii) feature of caste, (iii) caste through the ages (iv) caste in modern India, (v) emergence of class, (3) social institutions (i) family, marriage and kinship, (ii) caste councils, *Jajmani* system, (iii) religion (a) magic and witchcraft, (b) animism, (c) sects and Hinduism

3 Changing rural scene

(i) internal and external forces of change, (ii) community development programme and co operative movement, (iii) urbanization and industrialization, (iv) *Panchayati raj*, (v) caste and class-oriented leadership, (vi) sanskritization and westernization.

4 Rural Problems

(i) casteism groupism and factionalism, (ii) untouchability, (iii) landless labour, (iv) unemployment and indebtedness, (v) illiteracy.

Paper V—Social Research Methods

A Nature of scientific research—problems of concept building explication—

Major steps in scientific research—selections and formulation of research problem—hypothesis—research design—exploratory—descriptive—diagnostic—experimental—

B Social surveys—nature evolution and planning the survey—sampling techniques—basic idea, types of sample design, size of sample—different methods of sampling—simple random, stratified, multistage, area sampling, cluster sampling, purposive sampling table of random numbers—principles of choosing among alternative sampling methods—techniques of interpenetrating samples—large scale sample surveys—problems of measurement—reliability, validity, precision

Data collection—Tools and Techniques—(a) use of documents—statistical and personal documents, (b) observational methods, (c) content analysis, (d) questionnaires—schedules, (e) sociometric method, (f) scaling techniques—rating, (g) interview, (h) panel study, (i) case studies

Processing the data—editing, coding, tabulating, analysis and interpretation of data—preparation of report

C Bearing of theory and empirical research on each other.

D Statistics for social research.

Paper VI—Tribal Economy

1 Primitive Economic Organisation

A General (i) nature and characteristics, (ii) main stages of economic development, (iii) classification, (iv) economic mechanism (a) division of labour, (b) production, distribution

and consumption, (c) gifts, barter and trade, (v) property, primitive communism, (vi) co operative way of life and economic behaviour

B Comparative study of primitive economics of main tribes of the world

2 Tribal Economy in India

A General (i) forest—agriculture based economy, (ii) shifting cultivation, dependence on forests, (iii) primitive way of cultivation, quality and quantum of land holdings, (iv) importance of weekly and general markets, fairs and festivals, (v) barter, cash economy and marketing, (vi) rural and cottage crafts and industries (vii) cooperative and collective nature of economic behaviour

B Comparative study of tribal economies of main tribes in India

3 Problems of Tribal Economy in India

(i) Forest economy dependence and displacement exploitation of the tribals in forest areas by contractors and money lenders, conflict with the forest administration of the government, decline and growth of forests, reappraisal of forest policy, developing forest villages and forest based economy

(ii) Agricultural economy Geographical features, shifting cultivation, old and traditional methods of cultivation uneconomic holdings, land rights, landless labour, problem of water and irrigation, unemployment and indebtedness, ignorance and illiteracy, animal husbandry, spread of co operative programme, improved methods of agriculture and improvement of livestock, pastures and grassland,

(iii) culture conflict, assimilation, acculturation

4 Five year plans, development programmes, economic reconstruction, role of non official agencies, culture contact, urbanization, industrialization, impact of technological development

Paper VII—Ethnology

1. Ethnic Groups of India

(1) Population and distribution, racial classifications

(2) Historical background (i) racial migrations, advent of Aryans, conflict between Aryans and non Aryans, tribes through the early ages (ii) position of tribals during Rajput, Musalman, Maratha and British periods, (iii) foreign elements in the ethnic groups of India, (iv) causes of isolation and exclusion of some ethnic groups

2 Primitive Way of Life

1) Social and economic aspects

(2) Cultural aspects (i) habitat, (ii) art and architecture, crafts and industries, (iii) dances, songs, fables, (iv) religion magic, witchcraft, animism, impact of Hinduism, Christianity and other religious movements, (v) primitive law and regulation.

3 Culture contact and culture conflict, isolation and acculturation, assimilation and integration, urbanization and industrialization, Hinduism and Christianity

Paper VIII—Monograph Studies

Bhils of Gujarat Comprehensive study of all the published literature.

2 Tikopia A Study of a Polynesian tribe from two books : (i) We, the Tikopia and (ii) Social Change, in Tikopia, written by Prof Raymond Firth

3 Report of the Scheduled Areas and Scheduled Tribes Commission (Chairman of the Commission Shri U N. Dhehar), 1961

Paper IX—Dissertation—Master Essay

A dissertation known as Master Essay, based on field work in a tribal area

The Gujarat Vidyapith is quite a different type of institution—as compared with the universities of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Delhi, Lucknow, Allahabad, etc. The course of studies prescribed by the Gujarat Vidyapith has been provided to show a different structure and pattern from that of say the Lucknow University. The universities generally teach cultural and social anthropology—as at Lucknow

Social and Cultural Anthropology

A committee appointed by the U G C surveyed the syllabi of about 21 universities and found that the universities as specified below included teaching of cultural and general anthropology as well as that of social anthropology in their courses of studies for sociology

1. Social anthropology is one of the compulsory papers in B A in sociology in Nagpur, Osmania and Rajasthan
2. Cultural anthropology is one of the compulsory papers in B A in sociology in Bombay and Poona
3. General anthropology is one of the compulsory papers for B A in sociology in Patna
4. Social and cultural general, anthropology is one of the compulsory papers for B A (Hons) in sociology in Bhagalpur, Bombay Gujarat, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Patna, S N D T. Women's and S.V. Vidyapeeth
5. Social and cultural anthropology is one of the compulsory papers for M A in sociology in Andhra, Nagpur, Osmania and Rajasthan. Applied anthropology is one of the compulsory papers for M A in sociology in Osmania University

SECTION V : ECONOMIC SCIENCES

CHAPTER XXXI

ECONOMICS

Economics is one of the most important social sciences taught in India. It is one of the popular subjects offered as one of the optional subjects for B.A. The number of students who offer economics for their M.A. degree is also substantial and is steadily rising. But what attaches greater importance to economics is that it is one of the mother disciplines out of which have been born sociology, statistics, industrial sociology, demography, social anthropology, commerce, business administration, etc., as distinct disciplines. The writer of these lines takes his mind back to the twenties of this century when in his B.A. classes, he studied all these subjects as branches of economics, and even today, though several of these disciplines have acquired a distinct status of their own the subject matter is so interwoven that a knowledge of these disciplines remains an essential integral part of the study of economics. This science has been taking long strides and its study is expanding at a much accelerated pace than many other disciplines.

In the first part of this book Dr. C. N. Vakil has dealt with the various aspects of teaching of economics in detail, in fact he has dealt with it so exhaustively that more than one-fourth of the entire first part covers economics alone. In the second part, we are primarily dealing with the progress during the eleven years 1956-67. In case of many disciplines where the information was meagre in the first part, we have supplemented in the second part. The detailed syllabus prescribed for a discipline may appear redundant to teachers and students connected with the same, for they are all too familiar with what is being taught in Indian universities, but as stated earlier one of the objects of this survey is to acquaint our readers abroad with the contents of each discipline. Obviously it is not possible to deal with each individual university—in regard to each of the disciplines. So as far as possible detailed syllabus of one university has been given—in each chapter. In case of history—we have stated—what the Madras University is teaching. Obviously the syllabus there has a bias for those parts of history which are of more local interest. So, also in the social anthropology course, the Gujarat Vidyapeeth prescribes certain courses connected with tribes in Gujarat. Others prescribe special study of problems in or near their own areas. This is but natural—whether we call it industrial sociology or labour welfare or by any other name, the course of studies must prescribe for study of the labour laws of the State, the university is situated in or

connected with Barring this speciality—one or more papers catering more to local interest and utility—the pattern of course of studies, if not identical is similar in most of the universities. So, though to our Indian readers, there would be little of interest, in the syllabus of a subject, it would be of interest to our foreign readers—who would be able to look up in this one volume alone what is being taught in the Indian universities—in each discipline. With this end in view, we are giving in this chapter the details of syllabus prescribed by the Bombay University for M A in economics. Before we do so, we shall briefly touch the course of studies prescribed for B A.

Two Year Degree Course

It would however be more appropriate—to pinpoint the change, deviation or progress during the 1956-66 period—by reference to the course of studies prescribed for teaching in 1956 and comparing it with that prescribed for 1966 but that would cover too much space. Professor Vakil has given the course of studies prescribed for B A and we shall only indicate change in the number of papers. The course for M A has not been provided in part I of this volume and we are giving the same here.

Generally three subjects are offered in B A.—English (compulsory) and two other subjects. Some of the universities have abolished English as a compulsory subject and allow any three subjects, but students offering three subjects, English not being one of these, have to appear in a paper or two papers in English (general) to give a test of their general ability in the English language. The marks awarded in general English are not added to the marks obtained in other three subjects, for purposes of grading or division, but the B A degree is not conferred unless the student takes the general English examination and is declared successful in it.*

But at the Bombay university it is a little different. There is an examination for the degree of B A (general) and an examination for the degree of B A (special). The schemes for the B A general and special courses are as follows.

B A. (General)

1—English (compulsory) two papers of three hours and one hundred marks each, one of which includes composition.

Four other voluntary subjects with two papers in each, of three hours, and one hundred marks each must be selected from the following groups (A) to (K) provided that the candidate chooses his subjects from at least three groups and provided further that

*The position in regard to English is in a fluid state and nothing can be said with certainty as to what the shape of things to come would be.

the candidate who takes (F) (iii) shall take F (i) and the candidate who takes J (v) shall take J (i) but not F (iv). In other words, identical subjects occurring under two separate groups cannot be offered by candidates as two separate subjects. The groups are (A) language, (B) philosophy, (C) Psychology, (D) history, (E) Ancient Indian Culture, (F) Economics, (G) Sociology, (H) Anthropology, (I) Politics, (J) Mathematics.

The group (F) economics formerly had five papers, (i) principles of economics, (ii) economic history, (iii) political science, (iv) statistical methods, and, (v) society and social evolution, but the university has revised the scheme only last year and now provides for only three papers, (i), (ii) and (iv).

B A (Special). The scheme for B A (special) is as follows: (1) English compulsory. Two papers as in B A (general), (2) four other voluntary subjects, with two papers in each, of three hours' duration and one hundred marks each. In the (F) group economics there were till recently six papers, (i) principles of economics, (ii) economic history, (iii) political science, (iv) statistical methods, (v) society and social evolution, and (vi) Indian economic problems.

Every candidate for the B A (special) in economics had to offer (i) and (vi). But the University has recently revised the course and it now comprises (i), (ii), (iv) and a paper on problems of Indian economic development.

Three years' degree course

In most of the universities there is a three-year course for B A. But in Bombay and several universities in U P the old system of Intermediate (2 years' course after matriculation) and then B A two years' course still continues. To give a detailed idea of the three-year course for B A students in economics, the subjects taught at the Delhi University are being given below. There are three papers, each carrying 100 marks.

Paper I Economic Organization

1. What an economy is—Central problems of an economy—Functioning of the price mechanism
2. The essentials of an economy—The productive process—Factors of production—labour and capital—The social products and social income—The flow of money—National income and economic progress
3. Causes of differences in productivity and standards of living—Inequality of incomes
4. Determinants of occupational structure—The roots of specialisation—Pattern of international trade
5. Forms of business organisation—The modern corporation—Fundamentals of the monetary system—The economic role of

the government—Different forms of planned economies—communism, socialist and mixed economies

Books

1 Samuelson (P A) *Economics An Introductory Analysis* (6th Edition, Chapters 2 to 6, 10, 15), 2 Brown (A J) *Introduction to the World Economy*, 3 Hicks (J R) *The Social Framework An Introductory Analysis*, (Chs 1-10, and 16) 4 Lewis (A) *Principles of Economic Planning*, (Chs 1 and 2) 5 Benham (F) *Economics* (6th Edition) Cb 4

Paper II Economic Theory

1 Theory of price Price formation—Theory of consumption and demand—Costs—Equilibrium of the firm under perfect and imperfect competition—A general view of the distribution of income determination of rent, interest, wages and profits.

2 Theory of income and employment. Theory of income determination—Prices and Money—Unemployment

3 Theory of development, with reference to underdeveloped economies The vicious circle of poverty—Theory of balanced growth—Size of market and the inducement to invest—Underemployment and the saving potential—The demonstration effects on consumption—Foreign capital in relation to economic development

Books

1 Samuelson, (P A) *Economics An Introductory Analysis* (6th Edition, Chs 11, 12, 14, 19, 21-23, 36) 2 Nurkse (R) *Problems of Capital Formation in Underdeveloped Economies* Chs. 1-3, 4 (Sections 1 and 2 only). 3 Benham (F) *Economics* (6th Edition), Cbs 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 23, 25-29.

Paper III Problems of the Indian Economy

1. Structure of the economy Growth and density of population—Urbanization—Working force—Occupational distribution—National income and its industry wise distribution—The crop pattern in agriculture—Irrigation and fertilizers—Principal factory industries—Cottage and small scale industries—Foreign trade

2. Economic organization. Size and distribution of holdings in agriculture—Land tenures—Organization of credit and marketing in agriculture—Agriculture labour—Industrial policy—Finance of industry—The managing agency system—Private and public enterprise in Indian industry

3 Problems of price and employment Price movements and terms of trade between the agricultural and industrial sectors of the economy—Wages in agriculture and industry—Employment of manpower in agriculture—Pattern of urban employment.

4 Problems of development: Objectives of planning—The rate and pattern of investment in the Five Year Plans—The problem

of foodgrains—Land reforms—Pattern of industrial development
—The role of the public and private sectors—Trends in foreign
trade and balance of payments—Financing of the Five Year Plans

Selected readings

- 1 M B Nanavati and J J Anjaria *The Indian Rural Problem*
Chs I III, VI, VIII, X, XII XIII, XVI, XVIII XX
- 2 P A Wadia and K T Merchant *Our Economic Problem*,
(Sixth Edition) Chs XV, XVI, XVIII, XIX, XX
- 3 H Venkatasubbiah, *Indian Economy since Independence*, Ch III-IX
- 4 A J Coale and E M Hoover *Population Growth and Economic Development in Low Income Countries*, Chs II IV, VIII XIII.
- 5 B C Ghose *Industrial Organization* (Second Edition), Chs VI, VIII, IX, X XV
- 6 *The Five Year Plans*
- 7 *Report on Intensive Surveys of Agricultural Labour*, Vol I (1954)
- 8 *Report of the Foodgrains Enquiry Committee*, 1957, Chs III-V.
- 9 *Final Report of the National Income Committee*, 1954, pp 4 23, 105 109

Assessment of Progress during 1956 67

Prof Vakil has dealt at length with the teaching of economics with special reference to the Bombay University and it would be only appropriate if we deal with the figures of Bombay University and furnish some details about the department of economics of that university. The latest position in regard to students studying economics at the Bombay University is being given below

TABLE I
UNIVERSITY OF BOMBAY

B A	No of students
Subject	2742
Including all subjects	
M A (By Research) 1966-67	No of students
Subject	One
Economics	One
Politics	Nil
Sociology	Nil
Applied Psychology	104
Economics	44
Politics	

M A (By Papers) 1966-67

<i>Subject</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
Economics and Politics	73
Sociology	76
Applied Psychology	25
M Ed	40
M Com	120

Ph D 1966-67

<i>Subject</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
Economics	15
Sociology	3
Psychology	1

These figures, when compared with those in the first part, would indicate the pace of the progress

Before passing on to all-India figures and the syllabi, we would like to give fuller particulars—in regard to the department of economics, University of Bombay

The Department of Economics was till June 1956 a part of the School of Economics and Sociology. The Department owes its eminence in postgraduate teaching and research in Economics to Professor C N Vakil, who was associated with it for over 35 years and was its Director till 1958

The Department has at present seven sections, viz, General Economics, Agricultural Economics, Monetary Economics, Demography, Econometrics, Planning and Development and Centre in Public Finance and Industrial Economics

The General Economics Section has 1 Professor, 1 Reader and 2 Lecturers. The Section in Agricultural Economics has one Professor, one Reader and one Lecturer. The Department of Economics has undertaken a Research Project entitled "Evaluation of the Impact of Land Reforms in the Western Region of India on the Structure of Land Holdings and Farm Production Potential". The project is sponsored by the United States Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Research Services and financed out of PL 480 Funds. The Research Unit consists of 3 Research Officers, 6 Research Investigators and 2 Statistical Assistants

The Section in Monetary Economics owes its establishment to an offer of a grant of Rs 25,000/- per year made by the Reserve Bank of India to this University for the development of a study of theoretical and fundamental problems in monetary economics. It has one Professor and one Research Assistant

A generous offer of help from the Ford Foundation enabled the Department to strengthen teaching and research in Monetary and International Economics, in collaboration with the Yale University, U S A This enables the Department to obtain the services of some distinguished Visiting Professors for the first five years

Due to the financial help from the Population Council, New York, the University has been able to start a Section in Demography from the beginning of the academic year 1960 61 Teaching in this subject in the Department began in 1957 when the services of some U N Experts from the Demographic Training and Research Centre, Chennur, were made available to provide instruction to students The Section consists of one Reader and two posts of Research Fellows The Department of Economics is one of the co operating institutions of the Demographic Training and Research Centre and provides to the trainees at the Centre an introductory course in economics and problems of economic development With the assistance of the University Grants Commission, a section in Econometrics was started in January 1963 with the appointment of a Reader

For research in Planning and Development to be conducted in collaboration with the Planning Commission the Ford Foundation offered a generous grant which has enabled the University to create the posts of two Professors, three Senior Research Officers and five Junior Research Officers

With the help of Forward Markets Commission a small research unit has been established for a continuous study of what may be broadly described as Economics of Forward Trading The Research unit consists of one Senior Research Officer and two Research Fellows

The Department has also been selected by the University Grants Commission as a Centre of Advanced Study in Economics This enabled the University to create the posts of one Professor, two Readers, three Senior Research Fellows and three Junior Research Fellows, in Public Finance and Industrial Economics, and scholarships to Ph D and M A students

The Department is collaborating with the Department of Applied Economics University of Cambridge, Cambridge, England, in a research study on Intra Regional Trade and the Cost of Ocean Shipping The purpose of this study is to discuss the effects of the present structure of freight rates on growth and development

Teaching and Research

The Department provides instruction for the M A degree in Economics by Papers There are four compulsory papers Theory of Value Theory of Money, Theory of Economic Development, and Public Finance and Fiscal Policy Eight special groupings of 2 papers each in Advanced Economics (Agricultural

Economics, Industrial Economics, Monetary Economics, History of Economic Thought, Public Utilities and Transport, Demography, Mathematical Economics and Econometrics) and two special groupings of 4 papers each (Agricultural Economics and Monetary Economics and Economic Systems) are offered. Though the rules permit a student to work in the Department for his M A degree by research, it is generally not encouraged. The Department is one of the leading centres in the country for research work leading to the Ph D degree in Economics.

The members of the staff also undertake research work on their own initiative. This consists of (i) research schemes financed by the University funds, (ii) research schemes financed by the Research Programmes Committee of the Planning Commission, (iii) research schemes undertaken for the State Government and agencies, and (iv) research schemes on behalf of international organisations like the FAO and ECAFE. Some members of the staff are frequently invited to serve on Commissions and Committees appointed by Government and some others serve Government in an advisory capacity.

The editorial work of (1) *The Indian Economic Journal*, and (2) *The Journal of the Indian Society of Agricultural Economics* is done by some members of the Department.

Since the inception of the Department, 81 theses have been approved for the M A degree by research and 117 for the Ph D degree. The following table gives the breakdown of the dissertation according to fields of specialisation.

TABLE II

	Ph D Theses	M A / M Sc. Theses	Books Published	
			By Present Staff Members	By Past Staff Members and Students
Economic Theory				
Economic Development and Planning	12	3	5	4
Monetary Economics and Public Finance	25	17	4	7
International Trade	12	9	2	—
Agricultural Economics	29	19	8	10
Industry and Labour	26	17	2	9
Demography	2	4	1	—
Public Utilities and Transport				
Others	4	4	—	—
	7	8	8	5
Total	117	81	30	35

- (g) to provide facilities for training in subjects within the competence of the Institute and admit students for the purpose, and
- (h) to organise seminars, lectures and refresher courses in selected fields of economics

Research Activities

The research work of the Institute is mainly organised in the following sections -

- (i) Planning and Development
- (ii) Agricultural Development
- (iii) Industrial Development
- (iv) Rural Demography
- (v) Urban Demography

The main activity of the Institute is analytical research work on different aspects of development. Since its inception, members of the Institute have been working on a more or less continuous basis on developmental problems. Several research papers and monographs have been produced with a view to facilitating national economic planning. Work is carried on mainly on an individual basis but is undertaken as a part of the planned research programme of the Institute. Members of the Institute also collaborate with visiting professors and scholars in individual and joint research projects.

Sponsored Research

The Institute also undertakes research into specific problems at the instance of Ministries of the Government of India and private industry. In such cases, the Institute has to set up separate units for prosecuting necessary studies and for the preparation of reports.

Post doctoral Fellowships

The Institute offers a number of post doctoral fellowships. Post-doctoral fellowships are usually awarded to university and college lecturers of some standing and experience or to research workers with experience in government or research agencies. The post-doctoral fellows participate in the Seminar and other similar programmes of the Institute, undertake a research project within the general programme of the Institute and return to their institutions with enhanced experience and qualification at the end of the fellowship period. Post-doctoral fellowships are usually for the period of one year.

Ph D Studentships

The Institute awards a limited number of studentships for Ph D degree in Economics of the University of Delhi. During the past few years, several Ph D theses have been prepared and submitted.

Training in Research Methodology

The Institute operates a course of training in Research Methodology twice a year once from January to May and next from August to December. The course is open to private candidates as well as scholars sponsored by Universities, Governments and other agencies who already have a Master's Degree. About 20 candidates are admitted to each course and normally 6 scholarships are given to selected candidates who are not sponsored by any institution. Details of the course have been given in chapter XXXVII.

Course in Econometrics and Mathematical Economics

The Institute has also been operating, since October 1962, a course in Econometrics and Mathematical Economics primarily for teachers and research workers of Delhi University.

Lectures for Students

Lectures are given by the members of the Institute's staff on the subjects of their specialisation. A course of extensive lectures is organised every year by the Institute for postgraduate and research students of the University of Delhi. In addition, occasional lectures are given by the members of the staff at the Institute's premises or elsewhere.

Teaching

In addition to participating in the courses on Research Methodology and Econometrics and Mathematical Economics, the staff of the Institute is taking part, though to a limited extent, in postgraduate teaching in the Departments of Economics, Commerce and Business Management of the Delhi University. This step has been undertaken in order to make the services of the Institute's staff available to a larger number of people in the University. The Institute also has post M.A. diploma courses of one year's duration in the following subjects in which the Institute has some special competence.

- (i) Demography
- (ii) Agricultural Development
- (iii) Techniques of Planning

Seminars

Apart from normal research activity geared to developmental problems, the Institute arranges from time to time seminars in which experts from outside as well as its staff members are invited to participate. These seminars are generally on an all India basis, but special provision is made for the participation of teachers and research workers in Delhi. Seminars have been held for instance, on Population Growth and Economic Development,

Centres of Advanced Study in Economics

There are various centres of advanced study in the country. For details readers are referred to the University Grants Commission's report for 1964-65 (p 45). The subjects chosen are astronomy, botany, chemistry, geology, mathematics, physics, zoology, economics, education, history, linguistics, philosophy and Sanskrit. The places for "centres of advanced study" are scattered all over the country—each centre being either a particular department of a university or an institution attached to it or forming an integral part of it.

Of the subjects for which there are centres of advanced study, economics and history are the only two subjects falling in the group of social science disciplines. The area of specialisation and the departments (university) which are the centres for advanced study in economics are specified below.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Area of specialisation</i>	<i>Departments</i>
Economics	Public Finance and Industrial Economics	(i) University Department of Economics, Bombay University, Bombay
	Economics of Development and Economic History	(ii) Department of Economics Delhi University, Delhi
	Agricultural Economics	(iii) Gokhale Institute of Economics and Politics, Poona, University, Poona

In connection with the teaching of and research in economics, we have to make special mention of the—

- (i) Delhi School of Economics, Delhi,
- (ii) Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi,
- (iii) Gokhale Institute of Economics and Politics, Poona University, Poona
- (iv) The University of Bombay

We would have liked very much to deal with all the institutions in as much detail as we have dealt with the teaching of economics at the Bombay University but space acts as a brake on our earnest wish to do so.

The Delhi School of Economics which has a separate building in the university campus, Delhi, has been making creditable progress in the teaching of and research in economics under the wise and watchful guidance of Prof B N Ganguli who has now been appointed Vice Chancellor.

Teaching of Economics in Agricultural Colleges

Before passing on to the detailed syllabus prescribed for M A, we would like to add that economics is also being taught as a subsidiary subject in agricultural colleges and universities.

We have separate agricultural colleges and agricultural universities in India which specialise in teaching agriculture and connected subjects. One of the connected subjects naturally is economics. In the universities, where the study of economics is one of the main disciplines, agricultural economics is covered as one of the branches. Teaching of agricultural economics whether in the faculty of social sciences as a separate discipline or as a subsidiary of agriculture, needs improvement and development.

According to Mr H S Mann, of Ohio State University a major handicap of students of agricultural economics who come from the cities is their ignorance of the conditions of life and work of the farmer. One cannot be a good student of agricultural economics without an intimate knowledge of how the village community functions. According to him, in India "methods have to be devised to expose students from the cities, early in the first year of their college, to village life, if this has not already been done at school."

We feel, Mr. Mann has put his fingers squarely on the pulse. Agriculture has been neglected in this country giving rise to various political and economic complexities and perplexities, to which, though belatedly, even the planners have pleaded guilty. If the teaching of agricultural economics had been more comprehensive and authoritative and the principles and policies had been holdly adumbrated and dinned ceaselessly into the ears of the Planning Commission and the Parliament, the country would not have come to grief as it has done, after twenty years of independence.

Mosher² has given an outline of courses in agricultural economics which must be gone through by students graduating from the agricultural colleges in Asia. These along with the courses in economic theory and statistics would complete the course of economic studies, as an integral part of agricultural economics.

According to Mr Mann, "the master of science programme in agricultural economics as it is now offered by some colleges of agriculture are most inadequate. No courses are offered and the student is expected to read at home some books out of recommended list in order to be able to write the examination."

Via. The master's programme in economics as provided by the universities is divided into part I and part II each requiring one residence at the end of which the student sits for his examination. The subjects prescribed for study in part I comprise

Problem of Teaching Agricultural Economics in India—by H.S. Mann, State University—Journal of Farm Economics, page 1549, Volume

² *Research and Extension in Agricultural Economics in Asia and Africa Today* by A.T. Mosher

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(i) Value, distribution and economic welfare, (ii) economics of agriculture and industry, (iii) economic history and (iv) economic statistics, or sociology or political science

For the part II examination the papers pertain to (i) income, output and employment, (ii) economics of labour, (iii) economic development. For the fourth paper a student has an option to offer a thesis or may offer one of the following subjects for a written paper (a) advanced economic statistics, (b) history of economic thought or (c) international economics

Dealing with the problem of teaching agricultural economics in India Prof Mann made the following suggestion.

'In order to meet the increasing demand for trained agricultural economists for extension, teaching and research the universities in India should make provisions for the Master of Science in agricultural economics, besides the Master of Arts degree. For Master of Science Part I, courses in management and rural sociology may be introduced in place of the economic history and economics of industry. For the Master of Science, part II, production economics may be introduced in place of economics of labour. Courses in agricultural prices, co-operatives and agriculture marketing may be provided as options in paper IV. In the interests of uniformity of students, the curricula for a master of science in agricultural economics should correspond with curricula for the same degree in universities

Types of Courses

From courses of study prescribed for agricultural economics we shall pass on to regular courses in economics

There are four types of courses of study for M A in Economics :

- (i) M A in Economics,
- (ii) M A in Applied Economics,
- (iii) M A in Rural Economics,
- (iv) M A in Economic Statistics

M A in Economics is the general and comprehensive term which deals with the various branches in this discipline and we shall deal with this at the end

M A in Economic Statistics

There used to be teaching for M A in Economic Statistics at the Delhi University. It used to comprise the following papers

(Preliminary House Examination in Economics, for non-economics students) *Paper I*—Economic Theory *Paper II*—Currency, Banking and International Trade. (For Non Mathematics Students) *Paper I*—Algebra and Trigonometry *Paper II*—Analytical Geometry and Calculus

M A Final Examination in Economics Statistics

Paper I—Theoretical Statistics *Paper II*—Applied Statistics.
Paper III—Indian Official Statistics and Economic Intelligence
Paper IV—Mathematical Economics and Econometrics *Paper V*—
 Current Economic problems (with special reference to Indian
 conditions) *Paper VI*—Practical Paper I (Part I—75 marks and
 25 marks for practical record) *Paper VII*—Practical Paper II
 (Part I—75 marks and 25 marks for practical record) *Paper VIII*—
 Project Report and Viva voce (viva voce 50 marks and Report
 based on project report 50 marks)

The Delhi University has discontinued Economic Statistics as a separate discipline and the studies in this have been integrated with M A in economics. Some universities for example Punjab have a separate course for M A in Economic Statistics.

Before we pass on to the detailed syllabus prescribed for M A in economics, we would furnish below an outline of the course of studies prescribed by the Gujarat Vidyapeeth in Rural Economics and M A in Applied Economics prescribed by the Utkal University.

M A in Rural Economics

There are nine papers

Paper I—Advanced Economic Theory (Value and Money)

Paper II—Theory of Economic Development with special reference to Under Developed and Agriculturally Predominant Economies

Paper III—Principles of Rural Economics

Paper IV—Problems of Indian Rural Economy (One)

(a) History of Indian Rural Economy,

(b) Problems of Indian Agriculture

Paper V—Problems of Indian Rural Economy (Two)

(a) Problems of Indian Rural Industries,

(b) Rural Co operation

Paper VI—Problems of Indian Rural Economy (Three)

(a) Rural Planning,

(b) Rural Development and Rural Reconstruction

Paper VII—Indian Rural Social Institutions.

Paper VIII—Social Research Methods

Paper I — Dissertation on any Indian Rural Problem based on actual field study

M A IN APPLIED ECONOMICS

The Utkal University has the following scheme of examination

There are eight papers Each paper carries 100 marks and is of four hours' duration

The course comprises —

Paper I—Economic Analysis

Paper II—Public Economics

Paper III—Social Structure

Paper IV—Statistics

Paper V—Monetary Economics,

Paper VI—*Economics of Growth*

—Any one of the following —

Paper VII—(a) Economics of Agriculture
and— b) Economics of Industry

Paper VIII—(c) Economics of Labour
—(d) Economics of Transport

M A Part I Examination is in Papers I, II, III, and IV and Part II in papers V, VI, VII and VIII

M A in Economics (Detailed syllabus prescribed by the University of Bombay)

M A (Economics)

- (a) Subjects are studied as far as possible with special reference to Indian conditions
- (b) Candidates offering entire Economics are required to offer Group I, and two subjects of two papers each from Group II, or entire Group III, or entire Group IV *Mathematical Economics* and *Econometrics* can only be taken by candidates who have passed the Intermediate Arts Examination with Mathematics

Paper I—Theory of Value.

Paper II—Theory of Money

Paper III—Theory of Economic Development

Paper IV—Public Finance and Fiscal Policy

Group II (Advanced Economics)

(Consisting of subjects of 2 papers each from which two subjects have to be taken)

(i) Agricultural Economics

(ii) Industrial Economics

(iii) Monetary Economics consisting of *Economic Fluctuations* and *Central Banking*

- (iv) History of Economic Thought consisting of History of Economic Thought and Economic Classics
- (v) Public Utilities and Transport.
- (vi) Demography.
- (vii) Mathematical Economics consisting of Mathematical Economics and National Income Accounting and Income Analysis
- (viii) Econometrics consisting of Statistical Methods and Econometrics

Group III (Advanced Economics)

Agricultural Economics

Paper I—Principles of Agricultural Economics

Paper II—Problems of Indian Agriculture

Paper III—International Agriculture

Paper IV—Rural Social Institutions

Group IV (Advanced Economics)

Monetary Economics and Economic Systems

Paper I—Economic Fluctuations

Paper II—Central Banking

Paper III—International Trade and Finance

Paper IV—Economic Systems

Group I (Economics)

Paper I—Theory of Value

Methodology of Economic Reasoning—Limitations of classification of Economic categories—Selection of assumptions—Analytical Models—Meaning of Equilibrium—Statistics and Dynamics—Role of Quantification—Limitations of Economic Theories

Theory of Consumers' Choice—Utility and the Indifference Approaches—Revealed Preference—Measurability of Utility—Determination of Consumers' Equilibrium—Problems in Measurement of Demand—Substitution and Complementarity in Consumption and in Production

The Production Function—Classification of Factors—Difficulties in Measurement of Capital—Shape of the Cost Curve—Transition from cost curves to supply curves—Significance of Industry Analysis—Partial Equilibrium vs General Equilibrium—External Economies and Diseconomies—Increasing Returns and the Representative Firm—Equilibrium of Industry under conditions of perfect Competition

Pricing under various forms of Market Organization—Market Morphology—Competition, Monopoly, Duopoly, Bilateral

Monopoly and Oligopoly—Product Differentiation and Selling Costs—Price Discrimination

Alternative Theories of Distribution—Euler's Theorem—The Marginal Productivity Theory—The Degree of Monopoly—Widow's Cruse—Distribution and Economic Progress—Elasticity of Substitution—Categories of Inventions—Special Aspects of Theories of Wages, Rent, Interest and Profits

Welfare Economics and the Theory of Policy—Economic Welfare and General Welfare—Real Income and Welfare—Value Judgments—Interpersonal Comparisons of Utility—Marginal and Total Conditions of Optimum Welfare—Distribution and Welfare—Welfare under Interdependence—The Concept of the Social Welfare Function—Compensation Principle—Consumers' and Producers' Surplus—Divergence between Private and the Social Products—Welfare Implications of varying market situations—Market Imperfections and Excess Capacity, Monopoly and Welfare—The Marginal Cost Controversy

The Pure Theory of International Trade—Comparative Costs—Opportunity Costs vs Real Costs—The Terms of Trade—Gains from Trade

Paper II—Theory of Money

Constituents of money supply—Factors determining the supply of money—Categories of liquid assets—Money Supply and Liquidity—Factors determining the demand for money—The transactions and precautionary motives—The speculative demand for money—Liquidity Preference and the rate of interest—Money Supply and Prices—The quantity equation and its variants—The modern theory of income determination—The consumption function—The multiplier and the process of income generation—Factors determining investment demand—The marginal efficiency of capital—The Acceleration Principle—Interest Rate and Investment—Investment behaviour in a developing economy—Money Supply and Savings—Money and Capital Markets—Savings and the rate of interest—Differences between the velocity and the liquidity approaches—Objectives of monetary policy—Exchange Stability—Price Stability—Neutral money—Full Employment—Economic Growth—Public Debt and Fiscal Policy—Central Banking Techniques—General and selective controls—the Bank Rate—Open Market Operations—Limitations of Monetary and Credit Policy—Fiscal Policy, its Role and Instruments—Nature and Characteristics of economic fluctuations—Monetary and real factors in the trade cycle—Credit supply and inventories—Credit and innovation—Credit and investment structure—Money wages and the volume of employment—Deficit Financing and Capital Formation—Inflation and Economic Development—Balance of Payments equilibrium and equilibrium rate of exchange—Fixed vs Flexible Exchange Rates—Adequacy of reserves—Cyclical and structural balance of payments problems and remedies—

International Monetary Fund and International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

Paper III—*Theory of Economic Development*

Criteria of economic development—Capital accumulation, Income and Welfare—Characteristics and developed and underdeveloped economies—Limitation of economic analysis in development studies

Role of capital in developed and underdeveloped economies—Process of capital accumulation—Relationship between saving and accumulation—Profits and Accumulation—Relationship between Investment and Profits—Economic Development and changing capital structure—Autonomous and induced changes—Interest, wages and capital structure—Ricardo effect in long run analysis—The spectrum of techniques—The supply of labour and wage rates—The meaning of Wicksell effect—Choice of techniques in underdeveloped economies

Pattern of investment in a developing economy—Balanced vs Unbalanced growth—Economies of scale and size—Increasing returns and economic progress—Social return criterion in investment choice—Monopolies and economic development.

Population Factor and Economic Development—Population and labour supply—Concept of optimum population—Malthusian conditions and underdeveloped countries—Wages and productive efficiency—Concept of concealed savings potential—Population and the wage goods gap

Innovations and economic development—Concept of circular flow—Relationship between credit supply and innovation—Capital supply and technological change—Economic development and problem of finance—Money supply and economic growth—Hoarding and economic development—Interest rate and investment policy

Theories of economic development—The Ricardian Model and underdeveloped countries—Supply and demand factors in accumulation—Stationary State—Marx and falling rate of profit—Reserve army and wages—Marshall and concept of a steadily growing economy—Role of increasing returns—Stagnation Hypothesis—Harrod Domar Model—Mrs Robinson and Golden Age—Socio-economic propensities and the take off—Indivisibilities and big push—Backward linkage, forward linkage and strategy of unbalanced growth—Critical minimum effort—The working model of an underdeveloped system—Relationship between consumption and investment—Autonomous vs induced investment patterns—Economic development in a mixed economy—Effects of the Five-Year Plans—Planning experience in developing economies

Foreign capital and economic development—Problems of servicing—Economic development and changes in import and

export structures—International Institutions and economic development—Balance of payments problems of growing economies

Paper IV—Public Finance and Fiscal Policy

Theory of Public Finance—Collective Wants and Their Satisfaction—Welfare Theories—Neutral System of Public Finance—Incidence and Effects—Taxable Capacity—Taxes on Personal Incomes and Corporation Incomes—Taxable Incomes, Gross and Net Incomes—Business Expenses—Depreciation—Irregular Incomes—Capital Taxation—Capital Gains and Losses—Unilateral Transfers—Death and Inheritance Duties—Annual Capital Taxes—Personal Expenditure Tax—Taxes on Goods and Services—Customs and Excise Duties—Sales Tax—Taxes on Land and Agricultural Incomes—Tax like Measures—Fiscal Monopolies and State Trading—Price Policies of Public Enterprises—Theory of Public Expenditure—Transfer and Real Expenditure—Growth Trends—Effects of Public Expenditure on National Income and its Distribution—Expenditure on Security and Social Services—Developmental Expenditure—Public Finance and Redistribution of Income—Functional finance—Fiscal Policies and Full Employment—Contra Cyclical Variations in Tax Systems and Expenditure Levels—Tax and Expenditure Sensitivities—Deficit Budgets—Public Debt—Voluntary and Compulsory Loans—Debt Management—Burden of Public Debt—Indian Public Debt—Principles of War Finance—Methods of Financing War—Excess Profits Taxation—Capital Levy—Developmental Finance—Methods of raising resources for development—Expenditure Allocations—Problems of Federal Finance—Distribution of Functions and Revenue Sources between Centre and States—Grants-in aid—Structure and Classification of Budgets—Public Finance and National Income Accounting

Group II (Advanced Economics)

(1) Agricultural Economics

Paper I—Principles of Agricultural Economics

Nature and Scope of Agricultural Economics

Demand for Agricultural Products—Demand for Food—Short-run and Long run Demand—Demand for Inventory—Elasticities—Engel's Law—Quality of Product

Supply Functions of Agricultural Products—Short-run, Medium run and Long run Supply Functions—Backward Bending Supply Curve—Cobweb and Other Models of Production—Responses with time lag

Agricultural Production and Resource Use—Production Function—Returns to Scale—Factor Combinations—Importance of Diminishing Returns—Location of Production and Regional Specialisation

Price and Income Variations—Seasonal, Annual and Cyclical Fluctuations—Stability of Market Charges—Price Stability—Integrated Price System—Forward Pricing

Factor Markets—Organization of Land Market—Determinants of Land Values and Rent—Labour Market—Wages and Employment—Capital Market, Capital Rationing—Role of Factor Market Organization in Agricultural Development and Poverty within Agriculture

Risk and Uncertainty—Product Combination—Factor Combination and Selection of Techniques Under Uncertainty

Principles of Farm Management—Budgeting and Cost Accounting—Linear Programming and Intra firm Reallocation of Resources and Product Combination Analysis of Farm Management Studies Terms of Trade between Agriculture and the Rest of the Economy

Paper II—Problems of Indian Agriculture

Pattern of Land Utilisation—Soil Management—Land Reclamation—Crop Production Pattern—Changes in Crop Pattern—Trends in Productivity—Obstacles to Increasing Farm Production

Animal Husbandry—Draught Cattle—Dairy Cattle—Other Animals Their Growth and Pressure on Land—Improvement in Breed—Cattle Products, Their Marketing—Co operation

Irrigation—Methods—Sources—Criteria for Selection of Irrigation Projects

Land Taxation—Land Revenue—Farm Income Taxation—Betterment Levy—Irrigation Charges

Market Organization—Village, Wholesale and Terminal Markets—Market Functionaries—Marketing Costs—Regulation of Markets—Co operative Marketing—Storage and Processing—Forward Markets—Marketable Surplus—State Trading

Agricultural Finance—Farm Debts—Rural Credit—Agencies of Supply—Regulation of Rural Credit Role of Reserve Bank—Co operative Credit—Long term Credit—Land Mortgage Banks, Crop Loans

Analysis of Price Movements—Influence on Crop Patterns—Minimum Prices—Integrated Prices—Price Parity and Price and Income Stability

Agricultural Labour—Employment—Wages—Conditions of Work—Minimum Wage—Rehabilitation

Farm Savings and Investment—Structure of Farm Savings—Trends—Capital Formation in Agriculture—Trends and Problems—Analysis of Structure of Investments

State and Agricultural Policy—Price and Production Control—Food Problem—Food Administration—Five Year Plans

*(ii) Industrial Economics**Paper I—Industrial Organization and Finance*

Definitions of the terms *Industrial Product, By product, Firm, Enterprise, Industry and Market*—Conceptual and Practical *Problems of Classifications of Firms, Industry or Sub industry*—Factors Influencing the Size of a Firm and of an Industry—The Concept of an Optimum Firm—Income Creation in Individual Business Firms and Industries—Supply and Costs of Factors of Production—Effects of Changing Outputs and of Changing Organisation—Markets and Prices of Products—Determinants of Business Activity—Analysis of the Methods of Government Regulation of Production, Distribution and Pricing of Factors of Production and Final Goods and their Impact on the Psychology and Behaviour of Business Firms—Price Theory and Business Behaviour

Nature and Relative Extent of Industrial as against other Forms of Economic Activities—National Income and Income from the Industrial Sector—Characteristics of the Industrial Sector in Developed and Underdeveloped Countries—Growth and Development of Industries in India—The Motivation of Traditional Investment Preferences—Role of Managing Agents—Tariff Policy—Impact of the Second War—Changes in India's Industrial Structure since Independence—Productivity and Industrial Growth—Rationalisation—Problems of Organisation, Finance, Labour and Relations with other Sectors, Government and consumers to be studied in detail with reference to any one Industry to be selected every year

Theories of Location—Analysis of the Factors which influenced the Location of Indian Industries in the past—Control and Regulation of Location of Indian Industries since 1951—Factors in the Formulation of the Policy Governing Industrial Location in India, U K and the U S S R—Industrial Location and Depressed Areas—Location and Regional Planning

Floation, Incorporation and Expansion of a Business Enterprise—Forms of Incorporation—Proprietorship Partnership Joint Stock Company—Study of Balance Sheets—Cost and Income of a Business Firm—Measurement Policies—Fiscal Policy affecting Business Income—Raising of Short term and Long term Capital—Methods, Costs and allotment—Ownership Distribution and the Structure of Finance Capital—Capital 'Gearing' of Business—Institutions of the Capital Market—Role of Government in the Provision of Long term Finance—The Special Case of Small Scale Industries—The 'Macmillan Gap'—Recent Developments in India

Technology, Markets and Large scale Production—Growth of Specialisation—Power of Finance Capital—Horizontal and

Vertical Integration—Growth of Monopoly Power—Methods of Controlling and Regulating Monopoly—Anti-Trust Laws and Big Business in the U.S.A.—Monopolies Commission in the U.K.—The Theory of Countervailing Power—Monopolistic Practices and Tendencies in Indian Industries in the Past and since Independence—Role of Managing Agents and Common Boards of Directors—Government Controls and Policies and Reduction of Competition—Difficulties of Entry into Established and New Industries—Investment Decisions and Uncertainty—Government and Big Business in India Policy and Attitude—Nationalisation—"Strategic" Controls

The Nature and Purpose of the Framework of Government Controls over the Private Sector in India—Company Law Its Evolution and the Present Position—Control over Capital Issues—Fiscal Controls—Industrial Policy—The Industries (Development and Regulation) Act as an Instrument of implementing the Industrial Policy—Tariff Protection—Government Subsidies and Direct Financial Aid—Government Regulation in Labour Matters—Impact of Wage Policy—Issues in Mixed Economy—The Problem of Incentives—Provision of Overheads—Special Importance of Skill Formation

Government's Role as an Explorer and Promoter of "Key" Industries in Under developed Countries—Government's Policies and Programmes influencing the Availability and Mobility of Resources—Impact of Government's Policies and Programmes on the Pattern of Manufacturing Growth on the Distribution of Factory—Growing Population and on the Flow of Funds investable in Industries

Operation and Management of Industrial Undertakings in the Public Sector—Different Forms of their Organisation—The Problems of Autonomy vs Accountability Efficiency of Government Undertakings—Pricing Objectives and Practices—Control over the Private Sector through Public Undertakings

Paper II—Economics of Labour

The Theory of Labour Organisation—Growth, Organisation and Structure of Trade Unions—Unionism and Labour Relations—Collective Bargaining—Strikes—Union Security—Union-Management Co-operation—Unionism and Economic Change—Unionism and Worker's Welfare—Trade Unions and the State

History of Trade Unionism in India—Problems of Organised Labour in India—Industrial Disputes in India and their Settlement—Indian Labour Legislation regarding Trade Unions and Industrial disputes—Role of Organised Labour in the Economic Development of India—Problems of Organised Labour in the Public Sector—Organised Labour in Other Countries

Characteristics of Labour Market—Employers' and Employees' Organisations and Labour Market—Wage Differentials

-Structure and Analysis of Wages—The Problem of Wage Incentives—Wage Theories—The Present State of the Wage Theory—The Forms of Wage Payments—Principles and Methods of Wage Regulation—Government Regulation of Wages and of Hours of Work—Economics of Minimum Wage—The Concepts of a Fair Wage and a Living Wage—Union Wage Policies

General and Regional Characteristics of Indian Labour—Methods of Recruitment—Labour Exchanges—Wage Problem in India—Profit sharing—The Bonus Problem The Standard of Living and Indebtedness of Industrial Workers in India—Government Regulation of Wages, Hours of Work and Working Conditions—The Role of Judicial Tribunals and Statutory Authorities like Wage Boards—The Question of Dearness Allowance—Wages and Working Conditions in the Public Sector—Labour Market and Wage Problems in other Countries

Problems in Social Security—Its Need and Form—Economic and Financial Aspects of Social Security—Effects of Social Security on Mobility and Enterprise—Social Insurance

Social Security in India—Workmen's Compensation, Maternity Benefits, Sickness Insurance, Unemployment Insurance, Old Age and Invalidity Security—Industrial Housing—Indian Labour Legislation regarding Social Security Measures—Social Security Problems and Measures in Other Countries

Role of Labour as Producers—Productivity—Role of Incentives—Wage and Non-Wage Incentives—Labour Management Relations in the Context of National Economic Development—Strikes in Key Industries—Labour as Consumers—Wage and Non-Wage Pressures—Economic Development as an inherently Inflationary Process—Wage-Induced and Profit-induced Inflation and its Impact on Labour's Income—Wage rates, Employment and Economic Growth—Wages and Technical Progress—Share of Wages in National Income—International Comparison of Real Wages.

Employment Policy and Rapid Economic Development of a Densely-populated Under developed Country—Occupational and Industrial Distribution of Labour in India—Dam power Planning.

Impact of Industrial Advance on the Development of Workers' Organisations Trade Unions as a 'Countervailing' Force—Labour Policy under the Five-Year Plans

I L O and the Indian Labour—Problems of Labour in Banks Railways, Ports, Municipal Undertakings, Plantations and Agriculture—Labour Statistics—Problems of Labour Welfare—Economic Aspects of Labour Legislation

(iii) *Monetary Economics*

Paper 1—Economic Fluctuations

Types of fluctuations—Periodic and Intermittent fluctuations—Problems of measurement—Characteristics of business cycles—Long wave hypothesis—Time series and their significance in analysis of fluctuations

Differences between the Keynesian and the classical approaches towards employment—Factors determining equilibrium volume of income—Consumption function—Short-period and long period factors affecting propensity to consume—Multiplier—Simultaneous and process approaches—Lags and leakages—Course of consumption in the trade cycle—Short-period and long period factors affecting volume of investment—Marginal efficiency of capital—Net investment is replacement investment—Significance of the echo effect—Significance of expectations—Relationship between profits and investments—Theories of investment behaviour—Autonomous vs. induced investment—Limitations of the acceleration principle—Factors affecting investment in inventories—Secular factors of investment demand—Role of technology, population and international movement of the capital

Theories of the trade cycle—Innovations and trade cycle—The monetary theory—Real and monetary over-investment theories—Under consumption theories—Capital stock adjustment theories—Concept of the ceiling—Interrelationships between monetary and real factors in modern cyclical theories—The meaning of equilibrium line of steady advance—Role of inventory cycles

Economic policy and trade cycle—Wage policy and trade cycle—Monetary policy and control of the trade cycle—Relationship between interest and investment—Significance of stable, rising and falling prices—Fiscal policy and full employment—Role of built in stabilizers—Relationship between stability and economic progress—Trends and cycles—Cycles in a planned economy—Cycles and future of capitalism

Cycles in underdeveloped countries—International transmission of trade cycles—Stabilization of prices of exports of primary producing countries—Role of buffer stocks and buffer funds—Climatic fluctuations and effects on economic activity

Paper II—Central Banking

Nature of central banking—Origins—Growth—Theoretical foundations of monetary policy—Objectives—Guides—Instruments—Selectivity—Generality—Modus operandi—Incentives—Liquidity—Money and Capital markets—Institutional aspects—Public debt and debt management—Problems of monetary policy—Freedom of the market—Limitations of central bank policy—Relations with the Treasury and public policy—Governmental Lending Institutions—Central banking in underdeveloped countries—Central Banking in India—International aspects—Central Bank cooperation

(iv) *History of Economic Thought and Economic Classics**Paper I—History of Economic Thought*

Predecessor of Adam Smith—The mercantilists—Locke, Hume and Petty, Physiocrats—Quesnay and Turgot

The Classical School—Adam Smith and the beginnings of science of political economy—Smith and laissez faire—Smith on Value and Accumulation, Ricardo and the economics of abstract models—Labour theory of value—Diminishing returns and the Stationary State—Falling rate of profit—Comparative Costs—Money Supply and Prices—Malthus and the economics of concrete facts—Population Problem—The labour commanded theory of value—Effective demand and accumulation, The Classical School, The lesser lights—Say, James Mill and McCulloch—Senior and abstinence—The Four Postulates—John Stuart Mill and the Synthesis—Distinction between production and distribution—Four propositions on capital—Terms of Trade—Falling Rate of profit again—Limitations of laissez faire, Bentham and Utilitarianism—Sidgwick and Welfare Economics—The Austrian School—Bohm Bawerk and the Theory of Capital

The reaction against the classics—Precursors of Marx—Marx and the Doctrine of surplus value—Exploitation theory of interest—Reserve army of labour—Capitalism and the cycles—Doctrine of immiseration—Transition from capitalism to socialism, Controversy over falling rate of profit—Role of Imperialism—Luxemburg, Hobson and Lenin—Historico Relativity of economics—Theory of Protection—State as an active agent—Criticism of the Classical Postulates—Cairnes and Non competing groups—Bagehot and the questioning of the Classical Postulates, Marginalist revolution—Jevons Wieser and Menger—Theory of distribution—Thunen, Wicksell and Clark—The Mathematical School—Cournot and Gossen

The Economics of Equilibrium—Marshallian watershed—Theory of utility and the law of demand—Role of time in the pricing process—Notion of quasi rent—Marginal productivity and distribution—Theory of monopoly—Theoretical limitations of laissez faire—Distribution and economic progress—Transition from statics to dynamics—Reciprocal demand curves, Lausanne School, Walras and general equilibrium—Pareto and the indifference approach—Wicksell and the modern theory of money and credit—Schumpeter and the theory of economic development, Role of innovation, The Institutionalists—Veblen and Commons

Paper II—Economic Classics

The students are expected to intensively study the works of
(1) One leading Classical Writer like Ricardo, Adam Smith, Malthus, Marx, John Stuart Mill and Bohm Bawerk.

(2) One Modern Writer like Marshall, Wicksell, Pigou and Schumpeter

Types of fluctuations—Periodic and Intermittent fluctuations—Problems of measurement—Characteristics of business cycles—Long wave hypothesis—Time series and their significance in analysis of fluctuations

Differences between the Keynesian and the classical approaches towards employment—Factors determining equilibrium volume of income—Consumption function—Short period and long period factors affecting propensity to consume—Multiplier—Simultaneous and process approaches—Lags and leakages—Course of consumption in the trade cycle—Short period and long period factors affecting volume of investment—Marginal efficiency of capital—Net investment is replacement investment—Significance of the echo effect—Significance of expectations—Relationship between profits and investments—Theories of investment behaviour—Autonomous vs induced investment—Limitations of the acceleration principle—Factors affecting investment in inventories—Secular factors of investment demand—Role of technology, population and international movement of the capital

Theories of the trade cycle—Innovations and trade cycle—The monetary theory—Real and monetary over investment theories—Under consumption theories—Capital stock adjustment theories—Concept of the ceiling—Interrelationships between monetary and real factors in modern cyclical theories—The meaning of equilibrium line of steady advance—Role of inventory cycles

Economic policy and trade cycle—Wage policy and trade cycle—Monetary policy and control of the trade cycle—Relationship between interest and investment—Significance of stable, rising and falling prices—Fiscal policy and full employment—Role of built in stabilizers—Relationship between stability and economic progress—Trends and cycles—Cycles in a planned economy—Cycles and future of capitalism

Cycles in underdeveloped countries—International transmission of trade cycles—Stabilization of prices of exports of primary producing countries—Role of buffer stocks and buffer funds—Climatic fluctuations and effects on economic activity

Paper II—Central Banking

Nature of central banking—Origins—Growth—Theoretical foundations of monetary policy—Objectives—Guides—Instruments—Selectivity—Generality—Modus operandi—Incentives—Liquidity—Money and Capital markets—Institutional aspects—Public debt and debt management—Problems of monetary policy—Freedom of the market—Limitations of central bank policy—Relations with the Treasury and public policy—Governmental Lending Institutions—Central banking in underdeveloped countries—Central Banking in India—International aspects—Central Bank cooperation

(iv) *History of Economic Thought and Economic Classics**Paper I—History of Economic Thought*

Predecessor of Adam Smith—The mercantilists—Locke, Hume and Petty, Physiocrats—Quesnay and Turgot

The Classical School—Adam Smith and the beginnings of science of political economy—Smith and laissez faire—Smith on Value and Accumulation, Ricardo and the economics of abstract models—Labour theory of value—Diminishing returns and the Stationary State—Falling rate of profit—Comparative Costs—Money Supply and Prices—Malthus and the economics of concrete facts—Population Problem—The labour commanded theory of value—Effective demand and accumulation, The Classical School, The lesser lights—Say, James Mill and McClough—Senior and abstinence—The Four Postulates—John Stuart Mill and the Synthesis—Distinction between production and distribution—Four propositions on capital—Terms of Trade—Falling Rate of profit again—Limitations of laissez faire, Bentham and Utilitarianism—Sidgwick and Welfare Economics—The Austrian School—Bohm Bawerk and the Theory of Capital

The reaction against the classics—Precursors of Marx—Marx and the Doctrine of surplus value—Exploitation theory of interest—Reserve army of labour—Capitalism and the cycles—Doctrine of immiseration—Transition from capitalism to socialism, Controversy over falling rate of profit—Role of Imperialism—Luxemburg—Hobson and Lenin—Historico Relativity of economics—Theory of Protection—State as an active agent—Criticism of the Classical Postulates—Cairnes and Non competing groups—Bagehot and the questioning of the Classical Postulates, Marginalist revolution—Jevons—Wieser and Menger—Theory of distribution—Thunen, Wicksteed and Clark—The Mathematical School—Cournot and Gossen

The Economics of Equilibrium—Marshallian watershed—Theory of utility and the law of demand—Role of time in the pricing process—Notion of quasi rent—Marginal productivity and distribution—Theory of monopoly—Theoretical limitations of laissez faire—Distribution and economic progress—Transition from statics to dynamics—Reciprocal demand curves, Lausanne School, Walras and general equilibrium—Pareto and the indifference approach—Wicksell and the modern theory of money and credit—Schumpeter and the theory of economic development, Role of innovation, The Institutionalists—Veblen and Commons

Paper II—Economic Classics

The students are expected to intensively study the works of

(1) One leading Classical Writer like Ricardo, Adam Smith, Malthus, Marx, John Stuart Mill and Bohm Bawerk

(2) One Modern Writer like Marshall, Wicksell, Pigou and Schumpeter

The authors are recommended from time to time. The following authors are recommended for the years 1968

(1) Classical Writer Ricardo (2) Modern Writer Marshall
Or (1) Classical Writer Marx (2) Modern Writer Schumpeter

(v) *Public Utilities and Transport*

Paper I—Public Utilities

Economic Significance and Distinguishing Characteristics of Public Utilities—The Peak Problem in Utility Industries—Load and Diversity Factors—Cost and Efficiency Aspects in Utility Industries—Individual Utility Industries such as Electricity, Gas, Water, Telephones, Posts and Telegraphs, etc

Public Utilities and the Problem of Rate Making and Rate Regulation Public Utility Finance—Operating Expenses—The Valuation of Fixed Assets—Depreciation—Taxation—The Rate Base—Fixation of the Rate of Return—The Rate Making Techniques—Economic, Technical and Practical Aspects of the Fixation of Utility Rates—The Theory of Public Utility Rate Making—The Marginal—Cost Pricing Controversy

Problems in the Control, Regulation, Organization and Administration of Public Utilities and Public Enterprises The Ownership Question—Different Types of Ownership—Municipal Ownership—Evolution of the Concept of Public Ownership—Nationalisation—The Compensation Problem—Various Forms and Methods of Organising the Production and Distribution of Utility Services and Products of Public Enterprises—Departmental vs Autonomous Forms of Organisation—Accountability to the Parliament—Role of the Minister Problems in the Management of Public Enterprises—The Question of Efficiency—Audit Role of the Public Relations Departments—Employer—Employee Relations and the Role of the Joint consultation Machinery Importance of Consumers' Councils—Regulation of Privately owned and Managed Utility Undertakings

Choice of Projects—Measurement of Costs and Benefits—Investment Criteria—Selection of Multi purpose Power cum Irrigation Projects—Planning of Public Utility Projects in India and in other Countries—The T V A

Public Utilities in National and Regional Economic Development—Public Utilities as an essential element in a system of External Economies—Public Utilities and Balanced Growth—Inter relationship between the City Planning Movement and the Development of Public Utilities

Paper II—Transport

Function of Transport—Transport as a Public Utility Service—Importance of Transport in an Economy Role of Transport in

a Developing Economy Factors influencing the Growth of and Demand for Transport Services—Transport and Regional Specialisation—Inter-relationship between Transport and Location—Experience of the Soviet Union—Appraisal of Policies Affecting Location of Economic Activities and their Effects on Transport Services

Various Means of Transport—Railways—Road Transport—Inland Waterways—Shipping—Civil Aviation—Advantages and Special Characteristics of Each—History and the Present Position of each The Problems of Modernisation particularly Modernisation of Locomotives used by Indian Railways

The Pricing Problem in Transport—The Nature and Degree of Competition and the Problem of Pricing

Railways Nature of Costs—Joint Cost, Average Cost and Marginal Cost—Railways and Laws of Returns—Competition and Monopoly in Railways—The Theory of Railway Rates—The Principles of Cost of Service The Value of Service Principle or "What the Traffic Will Bear" Principle—The Rail Rate Structure

The History and Present Position of Rate-fixing followed by Indian Railway—Experience of Other Countries—The Problem of Fixing Railway Freights—Classification of Goods—Factors influencing Classification—Types of Freight Rates—Class Rates—Exception or Commodity Rates—Agreed Charges—Evolution and the Present Position of the Indian Railway Freight Structure—Passenger Fares—Recent Developments in Other Countries

Road Transport—Economics of Road Transport—its Characteristics—Multipurpose Use, Flexibility and Reliability of Service, Low Capital Investment, etc.—Evolution of Road Transport in India and its Future—The Problem of Finance—Taxation of Motor Vehicles—Neglect of Road Transport in India—Conflicts of Interests—Appraisal of the Schemes of Nationalisation of Passenger Transport—The Problem of Nationalisation and Goods Transport—Organisation and Working of Road Transport Corporations and Municipal Bus Transport Undertakings—Economics of Organizing an Efficient City Transportation System—The Case of the BEST—Private and Public Investment in Road Transport and the Problems of Competition and Co ordination

Shipping—Organization of Modern Shipping—Economics and Shipping Industry—Shipping in the World Economy—Nature of International Competition—Organisation of Shipping Conferences and Liners—The Question of Legality and Propriety of the Conference and Rebate System—Royal Commission on Shipping Rings—Minority and Majority Report—Imperial Shipping Committee—The Effects of Conferences on Indian Shipping—Utility of the System—Recent Developments in World Shipping—History

of Indian Shipping, its Present Position in World Shipping—Need for increasing Participation in World Tonnage—Factors influencing India's Tonnage Requirements

Economics of Inland Water Transport—Inland Water Transportation in India—Economics of Air Transport—Civil Aviation in India

Transportation Policy—Soviet Transportation Policy and its Defects—Lessons from the Soviet Transport Policy—Need for Co-ordination of Various Means of Transport—The Need for and the Difficulties in evolving a Co-ordinated Transport Policy for India—State Regulation in the sphere of Transport Development and Co-ordination—The Form and Working of the Government Machinery in the U.K., the U.S. and India

Transport in India under the Five-Year Plans—Progress and Prospects

(ii) *Demography*

Paper I—

World Population and Resources with special reference to South-East Asia—History of Population growth—Population Theories—Present World Population and food and other resources

Sources of data and basic principles of measurement of population growth—Censuses, vital registration, and surveys as methods of gathering data—Population census methods—Vital statistics and methods of their compilation—Use of census and registration data to estimate population size, rates of change—Natural increase and migration as components of growth

Evaluation and adjustment of population data—Testing under enumeration and under registration for the population in general—Testing under enumeration of children under five—Measuring the errors in age reporting and in economic characteristics adjustment of age data

Population composition—Definitions of basic demographic, social and economic characteristics used to collect census information—Relationship of age, sex, and other compositional traits to economic and social organisation and their effect upon the nation and community—Effect of demographic processes of birth, death, and migration upon population composition

Population distribution—Factors causing internal variation of population distribution, growth and composition. Trends in urban rural, metropolitan, non metropolitan, and regional distribution in technologically advanced nations and nations undergoing economic development

Economically active population—Basic concepts and definitions used in assembling statistics for the working force—Effect of demographic processes upon the composition and size of the working force—Occupational and industrial composition of work

force in relation to economic development—Length of working life ; participation of women in the working force

Mortality Analysis. Mortality as a component of population growth—Measures of mortality crude rates, specific rates, the life table—Influences of the factors affecting mortality—Causes of death—Regional differences and trends in mortality.

Fertility Measures of fertility and reproduction crude and specific rates, gross and net reproduction rates—Factors affecting fertility—Regional differences and trends in fertility—The study of fertility attitudes by special surveys

Migration Measures of internal and international migration , indirect methods of estimating migration in the absence of direct data—Factors affecting migration—Migration in relation to regional differences in growth and to urban rural population distribution, with special reference to economic development

Population projection Methods of making population projections—United Nations Projections of future world population and its implications, economic and social—Translation of projections into estimates of future child dependency, educational facilities, labour force, welfare needs, and old age dependency

Marriage, Family Status and House-hold Status Basic concepts and methods of obtaining data from censuses—Rates of family and house-hold formation and dissolution and their economic and social implications—Composition of house holds and families and economic and social implications—Importance of considering marriage, family and house-hold in demographic analysis and social-economic planning

Special Demographic Surveys in India Mysore Study—National Sample Survey—Poona Surveys— City Surveys (Planning Commission)—Ludhiana Study.

Paper II—

History of Population Theories : Doctrines of Malthus—Post Malthusian Theories of Population—Optimum Population—Population and Per Capita Income—Population in relation to Development of Agriculture—Population in relation to capital formation, investment and employment—Inter-relations of population, Economic Development and Social Changes.

Regional Distribution of Population and Economic Opportunity and Economic Resources—Regional Distribution or Employment in Industry and Agriculture—Mobility of Labour Seasonal and Permanent—Internal and International—Rural and Urban Need for a Population Policy under Economic Planning —Population Policy and Social Security—Family Planning and State Policy

(vii) *Mathematical Economics and National Income Accounting**Paper I—Mathematical Economics*

Elasticities of demand, supply, substitution etc Theory of consumer behaviour Slutsky's equation Equilibrium—General and partial, Concept of stability, monopoly, duopoly, oligopoly, laws of production, cobweb model and other dynamic models, important trade cycle models and models of capital formation and development, input output analysis, linear programming, activity analysis, allocation of economic resources—inter temporal, inter-sectoral and inter spatial

Paper II—National Income Accounting and Income Analysis

N I. concepts, methods of computation of N I

N I Accounts and their importance

Sources and Methods in computing N I Accounts Statistics.

The UN System of N I Accounts Methods adopted in U S A , U K , India, Netherlands, China and U S S R

Other systems of economic accounting—Input output analysis and flow of funds accounts—Relationship of these with N I Accounting

Special difficulties and problems in underdeveloped countries Concepts and problems in measurement of capital formation

Use of quantity and price indexes in National Accounts (for intertemporal and interspatial comparisons)

Basic concepts of Income Analysis—Dynamic problems in N I Analysis

Effects of shifts in disposable income, consumption function, investment and government expenditures, foreign trade, etc or the components of N I

Relative movements of N I components during the process of economic development

(viii) *Econometrics**Paper I—Statistical Methods*

Inductive inference and Statistics

Elements of probability theory Random variables and probability distributions Expectation and variance Binomial, Poisson and Normal distributions

Statistical inference—Estimation Methods of least squares and maximum likelihood, Confidence intervals Tests of significance—Basic idea Testing significance of mean, standard deviation correlation and regression coefficients—partial and multiple (t , X^2 F tests) Analysis of variance Elements of design of experiments X^2 and test of goodness of fit

Likelihood ratio criterion and its use Elementary idea of sequential tests and non parametric tests—Rank correlation methods

Special problems encountered in analysis of Economic time-series and applications of the above statistical methods in Economics

Paper II—Econometrics

Probability approach in Econometrics

Role of measurement in Economics.

Correlation and Regression analysis in Economics

Analysis of Economic Time Series

Statistical estimation of aggregative economic models Identification problems, two-stage least squares, limited information method, distributed lags

Use of Time Series and Cross Section data.

Econometric models in planning—scope and limitations

Use of linear programming and input output analysis in planning Allocation of resources—inter-sectoral and inter-temporal

Group III (Advanced Economics)

Agricultural Economics

Paper I—Principles of Agricultural Economics

Paper II—Problems of Indian Agriculture (The same courses of study as given on pages 629, and 630)

Paper III—International Agriculture

Salient Features of Agricultural Systems in Different Countries Grouped into—

1 Those pursuing Commercial Agriculture—USA, UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand

2 Peasant Proprietorship—Western Europe, Japan, Latin America

3 Underdeveloped Countries of Asia, Middle East and Africa

4 Collectivised Agriculture—USSR, Eastern Europe, China and Israel

International Trade in Agricultural Commodities Their Trends—Trade and Exchange Controls and Restriction and their Effects on Trade in Primary Commodities—Terms of Trade of Primary Producers—Foreign Trade Induced Cyclical Disturbances—International Commodity Agreements—Use of Agricultural Surpluses—Operation of PL 480—Food Bank—Commodity Reserve

India's Foreign Trade in Agricultural Products—Direction—Composition

Role of International Organisations like Food and Agriculture Organisation—General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs in Development of Agriculture and Promotion of Trade in Agricultural Produce Common Markets

Paper IV—Rural Social Institutions

Rural Social Institutions Family—Education—Religion

Rural Standards of Living Living Costs of Rural Families—Housing—Health

Rural Social Agencies

Indian Village Social Structure ethnic, caste and class divisions—Agricultural ladder—Leadership and Power Structure—Integration of groups into the Village Community

Farm Organisation—Subsistence Farming—Family Farms—Plantations—Estate Farms—Co operative Farms

Land Problem—Pattern of Land Ownership and Use—Land Reform Measures—Main Objectives—Zamindari Abolition—Tenancy Regulation—Ceiling on Holdings—Land Redistribution—Restrictions on Land Market—Bhoodan—Consolidation of Holdings

Agricultural Co operation—Principles—Development of Co operative Movement in India—Working of Co operatives at Different Levels—Reorganisation of the Movement—Size of Primary Unit—Integration of Functions—State Participation—Co operative Policy

Rural Population, characteristics and growth—Trends in Occupational Structure—Rural Urban Migration

Rural Reconstruction—Community Development Projects and National Extension Services—Co-operative Agencies—Panchayats Panchayat Samiti, Zilla Parishad—Efficiency and Welfare—Rural Leadership—Village Administration—Administrative Machinery of State Governments

Rural Development—Intensive Area Development Schemes—Colonisation Sarvodaya, Firda Development Schemes—Gramdan Villages—Development of Village Industries

Group IV (Advanced Economics)

Monetary Economics and Economic Systems

Paper I—Economic Fluctuations

Paper II—Central Banking

The syllabuses for the above papers are the same as those recommended for 'Paper I—Economic Fluctuations' and 'Paper II—Central Banking' under (iii) Monetary Economics of Group II

Paper III—International Trade and Finance

Pure Theory of International Trade—Comparative Costs Theory—General Equilibrium Approach of Marshall—Ohlin's Theory—Interregional and International Trade—Leontief Paradox—The Factor Price Equalization Theorem—Graham's Theory—Opportunity Costs Version—Gains from Trade—Terms of Trade—Optimum Tariffs—Protective Tariffs, Quantitative Trade Restrictions and Subsidies—Trade Preferences—Trade Agreements—Customs Union and Free Trade Areas—Commodity Agreements—International Cartels—State Trading—Free Trade and Full Employment—Economic Development and Foreign Trade—Commercial Policy for Underdeveloped Countries—GATT

Concept of Balance of Payments—Balance of Payments Mechanism—Price and Income Effects—Foreign Trade Multiplier—Concept of Equilibrium Exchange Rate—Purchasing Power Parity Theory—Equilibrating Mechanism—Multilateral Convertibility—Fixed and Flexible Exchange Rates—Multiple Exchange Rates—Exchange Controls—Exchange Blocs—International Capital Movements—International Grants—The Transfer Mechanism—International Financial Institutions—IMF—IVRD

Paper IV—Economic Systems

Basic Economic Systems of Modern Communities—Problems of Classification—Economic Institutions of Capitalism, Socialism and Mixed Economy—Economic Systems in Evolution—Emergence of Different Economic Systems in Different Countries—Historical, Ideological and Functional Explanations

Fundamental Economic Problems of Different Societies—Special Problems of Poor and Affluent Societies—Efficiency of Economic Systems in solving major Economic Problems—Economic Systems and Growth Rates—Economic Systems and Economic Stability—Economic Systems and Incentives—Economic Systems and Problems of Concentration of Economic Power—Economic Institutions as means and ends—Freedom of Consumer's and Producer's Choices—Freedom of Mobility—Freedom of Organisation—Significance of Private Property.

Historical Evolution of different Economic Systems—The Transition from Feudalism to Capitalism—The Basic Institutions of Capitalism—Capitalism as a stage in History—Capitalism and Economic Development—The Marxist and Schumpeterian Interpretations—The Capitalist System at Maturity—Imperialism and Colonialism—'The Rules of Game' in Capitalism—The Historical Basis of Laissez Faire—Evils of Capitalism—The Critique of Capitalism—Capitalism as a Welfare State—The Future of Capitalism—The Working of Capitalism in India and other countries—The Role of State Intervention—Experiments under Nazi economy

Evolution of Socialism—Socialism in Developed and Underdeveloped Countries—The Working of a Socialist Economy—Communism in Soviet Russia, East Europe and China—Socialism and Economic Growth—Socialism and Economic Incentives—The Price Mechanism in a Socialist Society—Future of Socialism

Modifications of Capitalist Institutions—The emergence of Mixed Economy—Mixed Economy as a via media between Capitalism and Socialism—Economic Categories in Mixed Economy—Mixed Economy and Economic Growth—The Price Mechanism in a Mixed Economy—Post war Britain—Sweden the middle way—The Indian Economic System as a Mixed Economy—Economic Planning—The relative roles of the Public and the Private Sectors—The significance of Strategic Controls—Problems of Pricing in Nationalised Industries—Economic Efficiency in a Mixed Economy

The number of books recommended as select bibliography for each paper is as follows

<i>Papers</i>	<i>Number of books</i>
Theory of Value	36
Theory of Money	33
Theory of Economic Development	37
Public Finance and Fiscal Policy	31
Principles of Agricultural Economics	16
Problems of Indian Agriculture	11
Industrial Organisation and Finance	35
Economic of Labour	27
Economic Fluctuations	33
Central Banking	33
History of Economic Thought	41
Public Utilities	32
Transport	27
Demography	40
Mathematical Economics	36
Econometrics	30
International Agriculture	9
Rural Social Institutions	26
International Trade and Finance	41
Economic Systems	41

CHAPTER XXXII

COMMERCE

In part one of the book Dr C N Vakil has devoted about 35 lines to the teaching of commerce, it was not possible to give more detailed information about teaching of commerce because his survey of teaching of economics in the Indian universities had covered about a quarter of the entire report which dealt with seven disciplines—economics, political science, international relations, sociology, social psychology, social anthropology and legal education. Since we are giving in this part more detailed information to enable the students and the professors in foreign countries to form an idea of what is being taught in Indian universities in each of the disciplines of social sciences we would like to furnish some details about the courses of studies prescribed by the Indian universities for B Com and M Com degrees.

In 1964-65 the total number of students studying in the faculty of commerce was 1,47,789. This includes the number of students in intermediate classes in the Uttar Pradesh. In 1963-64, this figure was 1,30,578. Thus there was an increase of 13% during one year. Allowing for an average increase of 13% during the academic years 1965-66, 1966-67 and 1967-68, the present number of students in the faculty of commerce should be about 2,13,260.

It is worth while to examine how far the teaching of commerce fulfils the conditions of being included in the sphere of social sciences. A glance at the subjects included in B Com (Bachelor in Commerce) would indicate that they include commercial correspondence, principles of economics, accountancy and audit, statistics, actuary science, economics of transport, theory and practice of co operation, theory and practice of economic development, public finance and co operation, banking, business administration, economics of cotton, jute (and other raw materials—largely used for manufacturing finished goods), etc.

Similarly in M Com (Master of Commerce), course of studies are included—economic policy and planning, corporation finance, organised markets, business management, cost accounting, advanced statistics, economic statistics, theory and practice of life insurance, advanced business economics, industry and labour, economics of agriculture, management accountancy—modern survey, statistical quality control, demography, mortality investigation, business analysis and forecasting, industry, trade and transport, co operative and rural development, international finance and other matters which fall in one or the other field of

social sciences, which we have included in the survey of social sciences in part II of this volume. It is therefore right and proper that the study of commerce be included in the present survey. Teaching of commerce as a discipline distinctly includes several branches of economics, statistics, demography, international financial relations, business management, industrial sociology, etc. And who would deny that life insurance, co-operation, banking, trade and commerce affect not only the individual way of life and thought but the social pattern of living, social attitudes, social thought and the general development of the society?

Before we furnish particulars of the subject matter taught in the pre-university and B.Com and M.Com. classes, we would like to give some tables indicating the strength of students, colleges and allied information.

The following figures would give an idea of the gradual increase in the number of commerce colleges and students studying commerce as an independent discipline.

TABLE I

<i>Year</i>	<i>Commerce Colleges</i>	<i>Number of Students</i>
1950-51	26	36,180
1953-54	22	47,531
1954-55	24	52,621
1955-56	26	58,406
1956-57	28	60,861
1957-58	32	62,455
1958-59	34	66,033
1959-60	35	73,806
1960-61	42	77,448
1961-62	52	87,458

TABLE II

Number of Students in each University in P U C , Degree, Post-graduate, Research and Diploma Courses—1962-63

University	(Faculty of Commerce)					Total
	PUC	Degree	Post Graduate	Research	Diploma certificate	
1 Agra	—	3,354	1,046	45	—	4,445
2 Aligarh	16	1,1	42	10	108	287
3 Allahabad	—	459	194	5	—	658
4 Andhra	369	1,800	100	2	—	2,271
5 Annamalai	—	191	31	—	—	222
6 Banaras	—	361	82	3	—	446
7 Baroda	469	1,093	44	4	10	1,620
8 Bhagalpur	130	475	139	—	—	744
9 Bihar	516	980	—	—	—	1,496
10. Bomhay	3,758	1,352	310	6	495	5,921
11 Burdwan	482	2 082	—	—	—	2,564
12 Calcutta	3,638	16,673	1,051	1	217	21 580
13 Delhi	—	1,031	67	—	—	1,098
14 Gauhati	862	1,214	128	—	—	2,204
15 Gorakhpur	—	693	134	9	—	836
16 Gujarat	3,208	2,656	448	—	—	6,312
17 Jabalpur	—	1,171	278	23	—	1,472
18 Jammu and Kashmir	67	85	—	—	—	152
19 Jodhpur	114	517	70	11	—	712
20 Karnatak	484	688	103	8	—	1,283
21 Kerala	1,704	2,159	137	—	—	4,000
22 Lucknow	—	720	204	66	—	990
23 Madras	2,487	2,398	66	—	70	5 011
24 Magadh	327	759	—	—	27	1,113
25 Marathwada	548	511	87	—	—	1,146
26 Mysore	1,565	2 326	41	—	—	3,932
27 Nagpur	4,210	3 963	429	—	—	8 602
28 North Bengal	114	—	—	—	—	114
29 Osmania	261	2,065	43	—	—	2,369
30. Punjab	304	452	9	—	—	765
31 Patna	100	375	150	14	—	639
32 Poona	2 664	3 540	35	—	—	6,239
33 Punjabi	—	249	—	—	—	249
34 Rajasthan	2,242	3,495	215	—	81	6,033
35 Ranchi	616	934	—	—	—	1,550
36 S V Vidyapeeth	213	423	31	—	—	667
37 Saugor	—	2,779	115	20	—	2,914
38 Sri Venkateswara	98	119	—	—	—	217
39 Utkal	—	556	16	—	—	572
40 Vikrama	—	3 231	630	8	—	3 869

TABLE III

*Enrolment in Commerce : 1964-65**(All figures of the table include both teaching departments as well as affiliated colleges)*

S No.	University	PUC	I	G	PG	R	D/C	Total
1.	Agra	—	—	3,965	1,336	45	—	5,346
2.	Aligarh	42	—	106	35	4	115	302
3.	Allahabad	—	—	419	217	—	—	636
4.	Andhra	133	—	1,930	146	7	—	2,216
5.	Annamalai	—	—	187	26	3	—	216
6.	Banaras	37	—	450	88	8	—	583
7.	Bangalore	401	—	1,058	—	—	—	1,459
8.	Baroda	537	—	1,145	57	1	19	1,762
9.	Bhagalpur	265	—	677	106	—	—	1,048
10.	Bihar	496	—	966	76	2	—	1,540
11.	Bombay	—	4,269	2,215	181	20	159	6,844
12.	Burdwan	287	—	3,108	123	—	—	3,518
13.	Calcutta	2,272	—	21,634	1,129	—	156	25,212
14.	Delhi	—	—	2,272	58	5	154	2,489
15.	Gauhati	638	—	1,569	130	—	—	2,367
16.	Gorakhpur	—	—	498	71	12	—	581
17.	Gujarat	3,825	198	5,303	456	2	—	9,824
18.	Indore	—	—	1,419	27	—	—	1,698
19.	Jabalpur	—	—	1,216	458	22	—	1,696
20.	Jammu & Kashmir	88	—	138	99	—	—	235
21.	Jiwaji	—	—	549	85	—	—	634
22.	Jodhpur	136	—	602	52	4	244	1,038
23.	Karnatak	720	—	814	81	9	—	1,624
24.	Kerala	570	—	1,832	138	—	—	3,300
25.	Lucknow	—	—	620	200	64	—	884
26.	Madras	2,769	—	2,578	62	—	72	5,481
27.	Magadh	258	—	658	12	—	27	955
28.	Marathwada	744	—	972	98	—	—	1,814
29.	Mysore	1,190	—	1,730	55	—	—	2,975
30.	Nagpur	6,004	—	5,825	605	—	—	12,434
31.	North Bengal	332	—	944	11	—	—	1,287
32.	Osmania	—	—	1,803	61	3	40	1,907
33.	Punjab	242	—	921	14	3	—	1,180
34.	Patna	128	—	312	164	—	—	604
35.	Poona	2,389	—	2,714	166	—	—	5,269
36.	Punjab	—	—	401	—	—	—	401
37.	Rajasthan	1,627	—	3,629	158	—	37	5,451
38.	Ranchi	663	—	963	—	1	—	1,627
39.	Ravishankar	—	—	1,717	270	—	—	1,987
40.	S V Vidyapeeth	269	—	419	55	—	—	743
41.	Shivaji	1,769	—	1,313	76	—	—	3,158
42.	Saugar	—	—	2,239	227	20	—	2,486
43.	Sri Venkateswara	40	—	363	—	—	—	403
44.	Udaipur	40	—	114	13	—	—	167
45.	Utkal	155	—	560	71	—	—	786
46.	Vikram	—	—	2,121	211	—	—	2,332
TOTAL		29,096	4,467	89,061	7,906	236	1,023	1,31,789

Now are being given details of the subjects taught in P U C, B Com and M.Com We are giving these, as prescribed by the Gujarat University

Pre university

The Gujarat University prescribes for study the following course of commerce for the pre-university commerce class

- (i) Economics and Commercial Geography
- (ii) Elements of Accountancy and Commercial Arithmetic
- (iii) Elements of Commerce
- (iv) Elementary Economics
- (v) Elements of Politics or Mathematics or Secretarial Practice or Insurance

Besides, a student has to offer English and one of the modern Indian Languages

For B Com the scheme of examination is as follows :

First B Com Examination

Subjects	Paper	Marks	
		External Evaluation	Internal Evaluation
1 English	One	70	30
2 General Education	One	70	30
3 Commercial Correspondence	One	70	30
4 Principles of Economics—I	One	70	30
5 Accountancy—I	One	70	30
6 Elements of Statistics	One	70	30
7 One paper in any of the following	One	70	30
(a) Actuarial Science			
(b) Statistics			
(c) Banking			
(d) Economics of Cotton			
(e) Economics of Transport			
(f) Theory and Practice of Co operation			
(g) Public Finance and Administration			
(h) Theory and Practice of Economic Development			
(i) Advanced Accounting and Auditing			

There are three examinations one at the end of each year but a student who has passed the Intermediate Examination in Commerce is exempted from appearing at the first Annual Examination

Second B Com. Examination The scheme for second B.Com. examination is as follows :

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Paper</i>	<i>Marks</i>	
		<i>External Evaluation</i>	<i>Internal Evaluation</i>
1 English	One	70	30
2 General Education	One	70	30
3. Principles of Economics—II	One	70	30
4 Business Administration—I	One	70	30
5 Accountancy—II	One	70	30
6 One paper in any one of the following optional subjects :	One	70	30
7 (a) Actuarial Science			
(b) Statistics			
(c) Banking			
(d) Economics of Cotton			
(e) Economics of Transport			
(f) Theory and Practice of Co-operation			
(g) Public Finance and Administration			
(h) Theory and Practice of Economic Development			
(i) Advanced Accounting and Auditing.			

Third B Com. Examination The scheme for III B Com. Examination is as follows

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Paper</i>	<i>Marks</i>	
		<i>External Evaluation</i>	<i>Internal Evaluation</i>
1. English	One	70	30
2. Problems of Indian Economic Development	One	70	30
3 Business Administration—II	One	70	30
4 Mercantile Law	One	70	30
5 and 6 Two papers in one of the following	One	70	30
Optional subjects			
Papers III IV			
(a) Actuarial Science			
(b) Statistics			
(c) Banking			
(d) Economics of Cotton			
(e) Economics of Transport			
(f) Theory and Practice of Co-operation			
(g) Public Finance and Administration			
(h) Theory and Practice of Economic Development			
(i) Advanced Accounting and Auditing.			

M Com.

The following are the subjects prescribed for study for the M Com, Part I Examination

GROUP "A" (Compulsory) 1 Economic Policy and Planning
2 Corporation Finance

GROUP 'B' (Voluntary Subjects) (a) Cost Accounting Paper I & II Two papers

or

(b) Advanced Statistics Two papers Paper I Statistical Techniques Paper II Economic Statistics

or

(c) Actuarial Science Paper I Theory and Practice of Life Insurance Paper II Theory and Practice of Life Insurance

or

A student has to take any two of the following groups (d), (e), (f) and (g), each group containing one paper

(d) Modern Business—Advanced Business Economics

(e) Industry—Industry and Labour

(f) Agriculture—Economics of Agriculture

(g) Modern Finance—Banking

GROUP "A" (Compulsory subjects)

Paper I Economic Policy and Planning

Evolution of economic policy—The views of the classical economists—Harmony between private and public good—The necessity of State interference—Socialism—Communism

Objectives of economic policy—Wealth and Welfare—National dividend—Consumer's surplus and producer's surplus—Individual and social welfare—Problem of distribution—The Compensation principle—Social welfare function—Stability and growth—planning in war and peace

Problems of planning—Rational allocation of resources—Physical and financial planning—Freedom and control—Direct and indirect controls—Social justice—Monetary and fiscal policy—price policy and wage policy—Voluntary and forced savings—Foreign aid—Public utilities and state trading—Control of population—Regulation of foreign trade

Planning in under developed countries—Problem of capital formation—Investment criteria—Choice of techniques—Inflation and growth—International aspects of planning

Books Recommended

1 P R Brahmanand *Studies in Theories of Social Welfare* Maximisation, 2 L Robbins *Theory of Economic Policy*, 3 L. Robbins

Economic Planning in Peace and War, 4 A C Pison *Economics of Welfare*, 5 K E Boulding *Principles of Economic Policy*, 6 N Kaldor *Essays in Economic Stability and Growth*, 7 Meade *Planning and Price Mechanism* 8 CED (USA) 1961, Prentice Hall *Report of Commission on Money and Credit*, 9 Commission on Money and Credit CED (USA), 1961, Prentice Hall, *Inflation Growth and Employment* 10 E M F Durbin *Problem of Economic Planning*, 11 Charles Bethlehem *Studies in the Theory of Planning*, 12 Kindleberger *Economic Development*, 13 A N Agarwal and S P Singh *Economic Under development*, 14 Schumpeter *Capitalism Socialism and Democracy* 15 W A Lewis *Theory of Economic Growth* 16 Ragnar Nurske *Problems of Capital Formation in Under developed Countries*, 17 A O Hirschman *The Strategy of Economic Development*, 18 A K Sen *Choice of Technique*, 1961, 19 B R Shenoy *Indian Planning and Economic Development* 20 Government of India *Five Year Plans*, 21 E M D Little *A Critique of Welfare Economics*, 22 A E A (Chapters on Socialist Economics and Welfare Economics respectively), *Survey of Contemporary Economics* Vols I and II, 23 A P Learner *Economics of Control*, 24 Hla Myint *Theories of Welfare Economics*, 25 Kedarnath Prasad *Technological Choice under Development Planning*, 26 Gerald M Meir *Leading Issues in Development Economics*

Paper II Corporation Finance

The finance function in business—promotion

Financial plan factors affecting financial decisions—cost consideration, risk—element time dimension capitalisation—Capital structures Capital gearing fixed and working capital planning—Control of capital issues

Types of finance—Ownership and creditorship securities—their sources—Corporate units—Private & Public Ltd Companies—Public enterprises and their financing

Specialised agencies and their services—Investment Bank—Investment Trust—Issue houses—Stock Exchanges

Supply of Business finance by Financial Institutions—I F C, S, F C, I C & I C I, I D B

Procedure for securing finance from I F C or I C & I C I Internal Financial Administration—Tools of financial analysis—ratios Budgeting capital budgeting and cash budgeting projected financial statement cash flow analysis

Managing the income Management of profit—Developing dividend policy creation of Reserve and ploughing back of profits Depreciation and maintenance policies—corporate Taxation

Financial difficulties Methods of meeting financial difficulties—Adjustment of capital structure—reconstruction

Financing expansion Goals—financial considerations—amalgamation and absorption

Books Recommended

1 Hunt, Williams, Donaldson *Basic Business*, 2 C W Gerstenberg *Financial Organisation and Management*, 3 Paish, F W, *Business Finance*, 4 A S Dewing *Financial Policy of Corporations*, 5 Rosen, G *Some Aspects of Industrial Finance in India*, 6 Indian Chambers of Commerce, *Central Financing Institutions for Industry in India*, 7 S C Kunchhal *Corporation Finance*, 8 Hoagland *Corporation Finance*, 9 Liefman, *Cartels, Concerns and Trust*, 10 Meade *Corporation Finance*, 11 Meade *Trust Finance*

GROUP "B" (Voluntary Subjects)

(a) COST ACCOUNTING

Paper I Industrial Management

Site for Factory Layout of factory and equipment of works power plant

Location of plant, building, machinery and equipment

Persannel Policies Selections and methods of training, Rating and Promotions, complaints and Grievances, Time and Motion Studies, Job evaluations, Incentives, Working Conditions and General Welfare arrangements

Types of Organisations Lines, Line and Staff Functional

Public Relations Interpretation of Labour Policies and Programmes to employees and to outside public, Maintenance of good relations with Public organisations like Newspapers, Radio Government Agencies, Consumer Organisations, Technical and Professional Bodies, Chambers of Commerce and Trade Associations

Marketing Sales Organisation and procedures, Product development and designs, Marketing at home and overseas, Market Research, Sales forecasting Sales methods, Channels of distribution, Sales promotion, Service after sale

Paper II Costing Labour Allocation of Labour costs to jobs and department including effects of grading, lateness, absent, overtime, idle time, night work, transfer and dismissal on labour costs

Materials 1 Stock and stores Control and storage of all materials, their purchase and manufacturing specifications Component lists

2 Routine of issue of purchase orders, Recording of receipts of goods, Checking specifications and qualities, Maximum and minimum stock levels, Ordering level, Danger point

3 Store keeping systems of stores work in progress, finished goods tools, patterns and plant centralised, de centralised and sub stores

4 Treatment, prevention and elimination of defective materials, spoilage and waste

Overheads Nature and types of overheads—Production, distribution, administration and Research and Development overheads, Fixed, semi variable and variable overheads, Overhead accounts and summaries, Methods of allocation and apportionment to cost centres and cost units

Absorption Methods of absorbing overheads in the cost unit, Effects of level of output on absorption of overhead expenses; Under and over absorption, Recovering of costs and charging to cost units Various methods of costing Concept and principles of cost unit with reference to Materials, Inventories, Payroll costing and Project costs

GROUP 'B'

(b) ADVANCED STATISTICS

Paper I Statistical (Techniques) Quantity Control

(i) Shewart Control Charts for variable for fraction defective and for defects, (ii) Theory of runs, (iii) Sampling Inspection, (iv) Acceptance Procedures, Sequential Sampling, Simon Charts and Dodge Roming Tables, (v) Organisation of Statistical Quantity Control

Paper II Economic Statistics

(i) Analysis of variance and covariance, (ii) Economic and Business Statistics of special interest to India, (iii) Family Budgets, (iv) Distribution of Income, (v) National Income and Social Accounting (vi) Analysis of Time Services and Statistical Measurement of Business Cycles (vii) Statistical Laws of Supply and Demand

Or

(c) ACTUARIAL SCIENCE

Paper I Theory and Practice of Life Insurance

Calculation of office rates of premiums for assurances and annuities depending on life contingencies, choice of basis thereof, Treatment of Extra Risk as Geoeal Provision of Indian Insurance Act of 1938 and the Insurance Rules 1939 with subsequent amendments and modifications

Paper II Theory and Practice of Life Insurance

General Principles of valuation of liabilities and assets of Life Assurance Companies

Analysis and distribution of surplus and analysis of other Practical problems arising on the valuation of life assurance companies

Surrender value of policies

Investment of life assurance and annuity funds, Income tax as affecting such funds

Or

Any two of the following groups (d), (e), (f) and (g)

(d) MODERN BUSINESS*Paper I* **Advanced Business Economics**

Economic theory and business—Micro-economic theory and Macro economic theory

Demand—quantitative expression of demand—The elasticity of demand—Income elasticity and cross elasticity of demand—Demand in different markets—Demand in oligopoly—The kinked demand curve—Price leadership and collusion

Pricing—The theory of price from the viewpoint of the individual firm—The weaknesses of traditional theory—Loss leaders—Turn over and pricing—pioneer pricing—skimming price versus penetration price—imitative pricing—pricing objectives—Full cost pricing—Pricing based on incremental cost analysis

Consideration of profit—Theories of profit—Problems of measuring profit

The concept of Marking—The Incremental concept—comparison of incremental and marginal principles—The principle of discounting—The opportunity cost concept—The Equi marginal principle—Application of these principles of business decisions

Risk and uncertainty—Alternative methods of dealing with uncertainty—Insurance principle—Hedging principles—diversification principle—application of probability analysis

Books recommended

1 W W Haynes, *Managerial Economics*, 2 Joel Dean, *Managerial Economics*, 3 Schlaifer Robert *Probability and Statistics for Business Decisions*, 4 Spencer and Siegelman *Managerial Economics*, 5 K E Boulding *Economic Analysis*, 6 K E Boulding *The Skill of the Economist* 7 P A Samuelson *Economics an Introductory Analysis*, 8 J D Coppock *Economics of Business Firm*

(e) INDUSTRY*Paper I* **Industry and Labour**

Industrial change in India—Growth and the present problems of major industries in India, Cotton, Jute, Iron and Steel, Coal, Cement, Sugar, Tea—Localisation of industries in India

Capital needs of modern industries—Sources of supply of long term and short term capital for large scale industries in India—Managing Agency System

Industrial Productions

Problems of industries in public and co operative sector—Cottage and small scale industries—Location and localization of industries—Problems of regional dispersal of industries—Industrial Estates

Labour problems of modern industries - Recruitment, Supervision, settlement of industrial disputes, Joint Consultation, Joint Management etc - Trade unionism and collective bargaining - Wage systems and wage levels - Law and labour - Labour Welfare, Job analysis Training Vocational at testing and guidances study

Planning and industrial development in India - State regulation of industries

Industrial Policy of the State

(The subject should be studied with special to reference conditions in India)

Books recommended

1 J A Hobson *Modern Capitalism*, 2 W G Hoffman *Growth of Industrial Economy* 3 Buchanan, D. H *Development of Capitalistic Enterprise in India*, 4 Rao, B S *Survey of Indian Industries*, 5 P Sargent, Florence *Industry and the State*, 6 Jain, P C *Industrial Finance in India*, 7 Saxena S C *Labour Problems and Social Welfare*, 8 Giri, V V *Labour Problem in Indian Industry*, 9 R A Lester *Economics of Labour*, 10 Mathur and Mathur *Trade Unionism in India*, 11 Punekar, S D *Trade Unionism in India*, 12 Thakker, G K *Labour Problem of Textile Industry*, 13 Hobson, J A *Conditions of Industrial Peace*, 14. Mehta, M M *Structure of Indian Industries*, 15 National Council of Applied Economic Research *Managing Agency System*, 16 N B Das *Financing of Large Scale and Small Scale Industries*, 17. Report of the A D Shroff Committee. *Report of the Committee on Financing of Small Scale Industries*

(f) AGRICULTURE

Paper I Economics of Agriculture

Demand for Farm Products - Production and Supply - Scale of farming - Land Utilization, Crop Pattern and Production - Animal Husbandry and Irrigation - Farm Management, Principles and practice - Land reforms and farm economy, soil conservation problems and solution - Location of production and regional specialisation

Finance - Long term and short term - Needs of the farmer - Agencies of supply - Regulation of rural credit - Debt redemption - Cooperative credit - Role of the State

Marketing - Marketing institutions - Regulated markets - Forward trading and hedging - Warehousing - State trading

Agricultural prices and incomes - Causes of instability - Terms of trade between agriculture and the rest of the economy - Parity prices and stabilisation measures - Taxation of Agricultural land incomes.

Agricultural labour—Employment—Wages—Conditions of work—Non farm collectivised Agriculture—Estate Farming—Plantations—International Agencies—International Commodity Agreements

Books recommended

1 *Report of the Royal Commission of Indian Agriculture*, 2 Nanavati and Anjaria *The Indian Rural Problem*, 3 *Reports of the Agricultural Marketing of different crops* (Department of the Government of India on Marketing), 4 E O Heady and H R Jansen *Farms Management Economics* [P H I (India) Ltd, 1960 Edn], 5 Cohen *Economics of Agriculture* 6 *Rural Credit Survey—Report 1951* 7 *Rural Credit Survey—Follow up 1957-58 onwards to date*, 8 *Report of the First Agriculture Labour Enquiry Committee, 1951*, 9 *Report of the Second Agriculture Labour Enquiry Committee, 1961*, 10 *Agricultural Legislation in India, Vol I to IX*, 11 Warner *Economics of Peasant Farming*, 12 *Farm Management Surveys*, 13 *Reviews of Co operative Movement in India*, 14 G Sheppard *Agricultural Price Analysis*, 15 Trelogan and Waite *Agricultural Marketing*, 16 A M. Khusro *Economic Development with No population Transfer*, 17 Schultz *Economic Organisation of Agriculture*, 18 *Seminar on co operative Farming, Seminar Series No III 1959* 19 *Seminar cum workshop on Problems of Farm Production Planning and Programming, Series No IV*, 20 *Seminar on Cost Studies in Agriculture, Seminar Series No III*, 21 *Annual Numbers of Indian Journal of Agricultural Economics Science, 1951 to date* (including Silver Jubilee Number, Vol XIX No 3 4 July, December, 1964), 22 *Report on the Price Policy for Kharif Cereals 1965-66* (Agricultural Press Commission, July, 1965), 23 Dr J P Bhattacharjee *Studies in Indian Agricultural Economics*, 24 *Five Year Plans*, 25 *Farmers of India, Vol I, III, I C A R*

Items 1, 3 8, 9 10 12 22 and 24 are Government of India publications. Items 6, 7, 13, have been published by Reserve Bank of India. Items 18, 19, 20, 21 have been published by Indian Society of Agricultural Economics

(g) MODERN FINANCE

Paper I Banking

Joint Stock Banking—Principles of joint stock banking—Types of business—Form of lending—Credit instruments—Credit facilities for hire purchase and instalment buying—Bill Markets—Commercial bills and treasury bills—Trade and industrial finance—Forms of joint stock banking—Branch banking and expansion—Nationalisation of joint stock Banks

General Banking—rise and growth of Central Banks—Organisational Structure—Nationalisation of Central Banks—control of money and credit—Treasury control

Banking policy—Control over money supply—Compensatory and getting and credit policy—Multiple credit creation—Price fluctuations and full employment—Money supply and income level—Banking policy and rate of interest—International movements of capital—Monetary and Banking policy.

Books recommended

1 Sayers *Modern Banking* 2 De Keck *Central Banking*, 3 Beckhart *Banking Systems* 4 Redcliffe *Report*, 5 Basu *Review Banking Developments*, 6 Robinson *Banking Policy of the Price Level*, 7 G Walter Woods Worth *The Money Market and Monetary Management* 8 Manning Dickey *British Banking System*, 9 R S Sayers *Banking in Western Europe*

M Com , PART II EXAMINATION

Following are the subjects prescribed for the study of M Com , Part II Examination

Group "A" (Compulsory)—Paper III Organised Markets, Paper IV Business Management

Group "B" (Voluntary)—(a) Advanced Accountancy—two papers, Paper III Management (including Advanced Accountancy), Paper IV Management Accountancy (including Advanced Accountancy)

Or

(b) Advanced Statistics—two papers Paper III Modern Sample Survey Paper IV Statistical Quality Control

Or

(c) Actuarial Science—two papers, Paper III Demography, Paper IV Mortality Investigation

Or

A student has to take two of the following groups (d), (e), (f) and (g) in continuation of that he had offered at M Com , Part I Examination (each group containing, one paper, 100 marks, 3 hours each)

(d) Modern Business—Paper II Business Analysis and Forecasting

(e) Industry—Paper II Trade and Transport

(f) Agriculture—Paper II Co operative and the Rural Development

(g) Modern Finance—Part II International Finance

Group "A" (Compulsory Subjects)

Paper III Organized Markets

Marketing of important staples of world trade—Cotton, Wheat, Tea, Jute Oil Seeds—Auctions—Co operative marketing—

regulated Markets—organized produce exchanges—yarn exchange—organisation of Bullion markets in India and leading countries.

Organization of the leading produce Exchanges of the world—types of transactions—spot, future options, puts and calls—on call—straddle—arbitrage—specific delivery contracts and non-specific delivery contract—hedging—middlemen and their functions—functions of Commission Agents, brokers jobbers wholesale and retail dealers—types of contracts—standardization and grading—quality clauses—price quotations—relation between spot and future prices—speculation and gambling—manipulation and corners—economic functions of speculation—evils of speculation—control of speculation—Committee for quotations, information, arbitration etc—Clearing house—State Control of Produce Exchange—Forward Market Commission in India—Technique and methods of regulating Forward Markets

Organization of the Stock Exchange of Bombay, London and New York—Giltedged securities and industrial shares—Cash and forward dealing—Options—Listing of shares—settlements, brokers, jobbers and authorized clerks—manipulation of Security prices and corners—supply of funds—administration of the Exchange—Government Control of the Exchange

Organization of the Discount Market in India, London and New York—Bill Market in India—Types of Bills—acceptance houses—discount houses—Commercial Bills and Treasury Bills—Finance Bills—Rediscounting of Bills

Book recommended

1 *Commonwealth Economic Committee's Report on World Trade in Cotton, Wheat, Tea, Jute, Oil Seeds* (Yearly) 2 *Government of India Reports on the Marketing of Cotton, Wheat, Tea, Jute, Oil Seeds* (different for each type of oil seeds), 3 P G Salvi *'Produce Exchanges*, 4 W R Natu *Regulation of Forward Markets*, 5 *S Bulletin* (monthly) *Forward Markets Commission*, 6 P G Salvi *Commodity Exchanges*, 7 J B Bear and O G Saxon *Commodity Exchanges and Future Trading*, 8 K Ghia and others *Organised Markets*, 9 H L Dholakia *Future Trading and Future Markets in Cotton*, 10 L S Venkataramanan *Theory of Future Trading*, 11 S L N Sinha *Capital Market in India*, 12 C M C *Private Capital Markets*, 13 R I Robinson *Money and Capital Markets*, 14 Mulky *New Capital issue Market in India*, 15 S R K Rao *Indian Money Market*, 16 H T Parekh *Bombay Money Market*, 17 Norman Macrae *London Capital Market*, 18 H T Parekh *Future of Joint Stock Enterprises in India*, 19 A K Sur *New Issue Market and Stock Exchange*, 20 Kersi D Doodha *Stock Exchanges in a Developing Economy*, 21 F W Hirst *Stock Exchange*, 22 K L Garg *Stock Exchanges in India*, 23 M S Rix *Stock Market Economics*, 24 P M Madon and R J Mehta *How to Make Money on the Stock Exchange*, 25 E V Morgan and W A Thomas *Stock Exchange*, 26 W T C King *The Stock Exchange*, 27 C. A Dice

and W J Eiteman *The Stock Market*, 28 C L Leffler *The Stock Market*, 29 F E Armstrong *The Book of the Stock Exchange*, 30. J E Walter *The Role of Regional Security Exchanges*, 31 A K Sur *Stock Exchange*, 32 P J Thomas *Report on the Regulation of the Stock Market in India*, 33 V R Cirvante *The Indian Capital Market*, 34 K.R Kulkarni *Theory and Practice of Co operation in India and abroad*, Vols I-II, Parts I and II, Vol III and Vol IV

Paper IV Business Management

The concept of management—The process of management—Planning organising—Actuating and measuring, controlling

Planning—Planning premises—External and Internal—Kinds of plan—Planning process

Organising—structural and operational aspects

Motivating—bases of motivation—Importance of human Psychology—Individual needs and the needs of organisation—Factors affecting

Performance—Motivating supervision—Proper direction, communication and deve opment of the individual—Leadership techniques—autocratic, consultative and free reign—Delegation of authority as a motivating factor

Concept of managerial control—control of personnel—control of performance—Areas of control—process of control, Standards, appraisal and corrective action—control aids—clarity of objectives, methods, procedures

Universality of the principles of management—Evolution of management 'hought—Recent trends in management thought—management as a profession

Goals and criteria of management operation—social objectives—Social control of business

Process of Decision making—Techniques of making decision—Rationality in administrative behaviour

Co ordination in management

Books recommended

1 Koontz and O Donnel *Principles of Management*, 2. Koontz and O Donnel *Readings in Management* 3 Urwick L. *Elements of Administration* 4 Koontz and Gable *Public Control of Economic Enterprise*, 5 H A Simon *Administration Behaviour*, 6 Hook, C R *Organisation planning—its challenges and limitations* 7 James N H *Executive of derision making*, 8 G R Terry *Principles of Management* 9 Peter F Drucker *The Proctice of Management*, 10 Peter F Drucker *Manoging of Results*, 11 W A Allen *Management and Organisation*

Voluntary Group 'B

(a) ADVANCED ACCOUNTANCY

Paper III Management (including Advanced Accountancy)

Objectives and Scope

- (a) Concept of capital with reference to sources (Equity vs Borrowed capital)
- (b) *Periods* Short term vs Long term capital
- (c) *Application* (Capital employed) profitability of operations and return on capital

Technique of analysing the financial statements arising different kinds of rates calculating the earning power of an enterprise in terms of rates turn over, margin of profit, total assets and operating assets

Various variables affecting the returns on capital—Impact of inflation on return of capital

Measurement of Profit and Presentation to Management

Measurement of profit by (a) periods, (b) Functions, Departments divisions, etc., (c) product group

Preparation of profit statements for central and managerial decisions—Designing reports on profitability of operations for the use of top management

New Project

Development and expansion—project planning—Determining working capital and long term capital requirements and estimating the profitability of operations and return on capital

Approach based on discounted cash—Floor and pay back method—Determining the capital structure in terms of availability of sources of finance and maximisation of return on capital and capital expenditure control programme

Higher Management

Financial Policies Plough back—Dividend policy—Bonus shares—Right issues under and over capitalisation

Tools for management accountancy Comparative statements—statements of sources and application of funds

Reports Presentation of accounting and financial data to the management at various levels

Paper IV Management Accountancy (including Advanced Accountancy)

Budgets and Budget Control

Types of Budgets—operating budgets, Capital budgets, Financial budgets, Long term and short term budgets Finance and responsibilities of budget departments and control of budgets

Interpretation of Cost and Decision Making

Kinds of costs—Historical, controllable, uncontrollable—Marginal and replacement costs

Costing of Projects

Make or buy decisions—considerations of relevant costs product pricing—Break even analysis and consideration of volumes and margin in terms of demand and supply.

Criticism of final accounts, scrutiny of the financial position of a concern from published accounts through accounting ratios. Interpretation of final accounts from the viewpoint of a banker, financier, shareholder, creditors and Employers.

General principles of Income-Tax Law and Estate Duty

(b) ADVANCED STATISTICS*Paper III Modern Sample Surveys*

Designs of Sampling—Stratified, Systematic, multistage, double sampling—Interpenetrating network of Samples—Sampling with Probability—Proportional to size of unit and various combinations Estimation Problems—Variance function—Non sampling errors.

Paper IV. Statistical (Techniques) Quality Control

Time series, Linear Programming, Theory of games, Theory of Queues, Multiple regression, Input-output analysis

(c) ACTUARIAL SCIENCE*Paper III Demography*

- (i) Meaning and scope of Demography.
- (ii) National and International Agencies for the Collection of demography data
- (iii) Computation and interpretation of Fertility Indices and reproduction rates
- (iv) Computation and interpretation of Mortality Indices
 - (i) Marriage and migration
 - (ii) Differential fertility and differential mortality
 - (iii) Morbidity and Mortality
- (iv) Population Projections.

Paper IV Mortality Investigation

Elementary principles and methods of Actuarial Treatment of statistical data including the compilation of decremental and other rates with particular reference to National Life Tables and death rates

Elementary Principles of Graduation

Graphic and elementary finite difference methods of graduation including summation methods of graduation

Fitting of Makehm and other formulas to mortality rates.

Or

Group "B"

Any two of the following groups (d), (f) and (g) in continuation of M Com, Part I Examination

(d) MODERN BUSINESS

Paper II Business Analysis and Forecasting

The concepts of Plant, firm, industry—classification of firm and industry—International standard—industrial classification

Size of the firm—various criteria of measuring size—capitalisation, monetary value of assets, employment, annual value of output, annual value added, volume of production—factors affecting size—Technology of production—supply of inputs—availability of service from other industries—Govt regulations—Utility of the theoretical concepts of marginal firm, optimum firm and representative firm

Relation between production, cost and size—Limiting factors of the growth of the firm

Income creation within the firm—Income distribution of the firm among various categories, suppliers, labourers, creditors, owners, Governments, etc Utilising financial data for making income distribution analysis

Forecasting of business activities—Type of forecasts—The methods of forecasting—Forecasting demand for individual products—Forecasting Gross National Product Econometric models and its limitations

Books recommended

1 John P Lewis *Business Conditions Analysis*, 2 E A G Robinson *Structure of Competitive Industry*, 3 John I Griffin *Statistics—Methods and Application*, 4 Kimball and Kimball *Principles of Industrial Organisation* 5 Sargent Florence *Logic of Industrial Organisation*, 6 Bezcham A *Economics of Industrial Organisation*, 7 Steindal J *Small and Big Business*, 8 Bethal and others *Industrial Organisation and Management* 9 Bassing V Lewis *Economic Forecasting*

(e) INDUSTRY

Paper II Trade and Transport

Internal trade—various points of distribution—Different channels of distribution Inter State Trade—Internal Trade in India

Foreign Trade—Cause of international Trade—Regulation of Foreign Trade—Foreign Trade institutions—Import and Export Policy—Export Promotion—Aids and Incentives

Financing of Internal and External Trade—The Problem of Risks

Transport Influence of transport on the movement of goods and people—Transport Costs Freight Structure—Transport Ownership and Management—Transport monopolies—State Control—Transport Co-ordination—Organisation of International Shipping lines—Problems of internal and International Civil Aviation—Transport management from the firms viewpoint—users' own transport Economic and developmental aspects of road and internal water transport—Shipping policy—aids to Shipping and Port development—Administration of Ports—Economics of Pipelines (All these problems have to be studied with reference to Indian conditions)

Books recommended

Lippincott *The Development of Modern World Trade*, Hardy *Seaways and Sea Trade* Haberlar *International Trade*, Heuser *Control of International Trade*, P E P *Report of International Trade*, Powe *International Raw Materials* Sherrington *A Hundred Years of Inland Transport*, Kirkardy and Evans *History and Economics of Transport* Johnson Heubner and Wilson *Transportation Economic Principles and Practice* League of Nations *Review of World's Trade* Teussing *Some Aspects of the Tariff Question*, Ellsworth *The International Economy*, Pytk, J M *Marketing Principles*, Government of India (i) *Guide for exporters* (ii) *Handbook for export Promotion*

(f) AGRICULTURE

Paper II Co-operative and Rural Development

Rural life in India—Village community in ancient India—present structure of Indian Village—social stratification—pressure of population and unemployment problem—occupational pattern—pattern of land use—problems of rural development—rural Finance—Mobilization of rural savings and capital formation water supply, sanitation, education transport electrification—Rural reconstruction—community development projects—National extension services—Village panchayats their problems

Philosophy of co-operation—co-operation as a method and way of life—principles of co-operation—classification of different types of co-operative institutions

A brief outline of growth of co-operation in India—co-operative institutions at different levels and rural development—co-operative credit societies Marketing and processing co-operatives—co-operative farming societies and service co-operatives—consumers co-operatives and other non agricultural co-operative societies—Reserve Bank State Bank of India and the co-operative movement—State and Co-operative institutions—problems of co-operative management

Conditions of success of co-operative movement—Future of co-operation in India

Books recommended

1 Bhatnagar, K P *Co operations in India and Abroad* 2 India Ministry of Information and Broadcasting *Sahkari Samaj A symposium on co operative movement in India*, 3 Publications Division, New Delhi, 1958 *Co operatives for rural development* 4 Jain, P C *Agriculture and Co operation in India* 5 Ministry of Community Development and Co operation New Delhi *Community Development and Co operation*, 6 Kulkarni K R *Theory and Practice of co operation in India and abroad*, 7 Mahesh Chand *Co operative Problems in India* 8 Mamoria, C B & Others *Co operation in India* 9 Banerjee, J *Co operative Movement in India* 10 Natesan, K *An upto date text book on co operation*, 11 Shukla G P *Co operatives and rural development in India—A Plan* 12. Srivastava G P *Co operation in India and abroad* 13 Talmaki, S S *Co operation in India and abroad*, 14 Veerasingham V *Practice and Philosophy of Co operation* 15 Pillay *Welfare problems in rural India* 16 Brayne *Better Village*, 17 S B Metha *Co operative Forming Agrarian development in India*, 18 V L Metha *Towards a co operative socialist commonwealth*

Journals

1 The Co operative Review 2 Panchayati Raj 3 Madras journal of co operation, 4 Maharashtra co operative quarterly 5 Statistical statements relating to the co operative movement in India of Annual publication by Reserve Bank of India

(g) MODERN FINANCE

Paper II—International Finance

Exchange Rates—Exchange market—Spot and forward exchange rates—Fixed and Fluctuating Exchange rates—Multiple Exchange Rates—Regulation of Exchange rate under the I M F—Gold Price Policy

International Payments difficulties—I M F—Its Origin objectives and working—Exchange controls—Control on Capital movements—Problems of convertibility of currencies—Bilateral and multilateral clearing arrangements

International finance—Shortage of Capital—International lending and foreign aids—Equity and loan capital—Private and official loans—Servicing of external debt—Objectives scope and operations of the principal—International Financial Institutions and foreign lending agencies

Books recommended

1 Halm *Monetary Theory*, 2 Ivarson *International Capital Movements* 3 Halm *International Monetary Institutions* 4 Annual Report I M F, 5 Heterler *Theory of International Trade*, 6 Paul Einzig *History of Foreign Exchange* 7 League of Nations *International Currency experience—Inter war Period 1944* Edited by Regnar Nihse 8 Kindleberger *International Economics* 9 Jacobo Viner *International Economy* 10 Ellsworth, P T *The International Economy* 11 Killough & Killough *International Economics*

CHAPTER XXXIII

BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

With the rapidly changing economic environment and the growing industrialisation, the need for professional training in management is fast expanding in the country. Today's effective business performance, both in the national and the international spheres, increasingly depends upon the knowledge, skills, attitude and competence of those who manage the affairs of Business and Industry. It is the primary objective of the several universities to provide the best possible professional education and training in business for men and women and to equip them with the necessary intellectual competence for positions of higher responsibility.

The various branches of business management are being taught under various disciplines—particularly economics, commerce, labour welfare etc. We shall briefly show how business management constitutes portions of syllabi prescribed for B Com. A reference to the syllabus of the Gujarat University shows that business management is included in the teaching of B Com as the particulars given below would show.

- (i) Business Administration constitutes Paper IV in second B Com examination
- (ii) Business Administration constitutes Paper III in the third B Com examination

Details of teaching for these two examinations are given below.

Business Administration—I (3 Com II year)

Meaning and importance of business administration, principal functions of business administration—planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting, budgeting, etc.—major problems of industrial administration—purchase, production, marketing.

Different forms of ownership—individual proprietorship—partnership—joint Hindu family business—private and public company—co-operative society—advantages and disadvantages of different types of ownership.

Administrative and managerial structure—activity levels of business management—top-level management, middle level management and bottom level management—communication and control procedures.

Principles of organisation—line, functional and line and staff organisation—committee system.

Factors affecting the location of industrial unit—factory layout and equipment.

Administrative problems of State owned enterprises and public utility concerns

Business Administration—II (B Com III year)

Personnel administration—problems of recruitment—vocational selection and guidance—promotions and transfers—job analysis job description and job specification—job evaluation—merit rating—training for workers and supervisors—problems of morale and discipline—labour efficiency—industrial psychology—methods of labour remuneration, time rate and piece rate system, group incentives, progressive incentive plans

Industrial disputes—causes, effects and methods of settlement—trade union movement and collective bargaining conciliation and arbitration—joint consultation—labour participation in management

Financial administration—capital structures—sources of long term and short term capital—managing agency system in India

Business forecasting—market analysis and research sales—administration

Organised market—spot and future transactions—hedging

Procedure and technique of export and import trade—indent business—bonded goods—finance of foreign trade

Production planning and control—purchasing and store keeping—cost control—budgetary control—control of performance and quality—problems of Productivity

At present the Delhi university conducts the following courses. The courses are meant for those who are already employed as executives in Business and Industry

- (i) Post Graduate Diploma in Business Management
- (ii) Post Graduate Diploma in Industrial Management

Both those courses are part time and are of three years' duration

In addition the Department also conducts a Post Graduate Certificate Course in Office Supervision for Women

As early as 1954 Dr V K R V Rao the founder and the then Director of Delhi School of Economics got the School recognised by the All India Council for Technical Education as one of the four centres in India for Management courses at university level. In 1955 the department began its activities as Business Management section established in the Delhi School of Economics for conducting postgraduate course in business management. From the start the section has followed the scheme of the All India Board of Management Studies in respect of subjects and syllabi at the same time maintaining the high academic standards of the university

Dr V K R V Kao formulated the basic objectives of the Business Management section and fashioned its services to the needs of our growing economy. He emphasised the importance of teaching materials, case studies, interdisciplinary and business contacts for management courses.

In 1961-62, the Section of Business Management introduced a Three Year part time Post graduate Course in Industrial Management. In the same year, the section of Business Management was converted into a full fledged department of the Delhi University.

Since 1955 more than 360 participants have successfully completed the business and industrial management courses from the university. They represent a wide variety of industrial and business organisations belonging to both private and public sector undertakings. In 1959, the Management Science Association was formed in order to provide opportunities for more frequent contacts between the students of the department and the outside business community.

Objectives of the Courses

The objectives of the management courses are

- (a) To impart theoretical background of those academic disciplines which are related to the field of management,
- (b) To enhance the analytical ability of the participants and to acquaint them with the tools and techniques for better decision making,
- (c) To develop a frame of reference which may enable the participants to perceive the complex elements and forces affecting the situations in business and industry and the ability to handle them realistically by relating knowledge to the practical situations,
- (d) To develop an understanding of the specific areas of management at various levels with particular emphasis on their inter relatedness,
- (e) To help the participants in developing an understanding of the organisational behaviour, to provide them an opportunity to develop their inter personal skills and to organise their personality to become better executives,
- (f) To foster the sense of professional ethics and competence, and acquaint the participants with the current literature in the field and sources of information for sustained learning.

Methods of Instruction

In order to achieve the above mentioned objectives the department utilizes the following methods of instruction

- (i) formal lectures by the regular faculty members, visiting speakers from business and industry, and other eminent

scholars in the field The lectures are followed by classroom discussions ,

- (ii) seminar discussions on selected problems of business and industrial management ,
- (iii) case discussions based on the concrete situations taken from business and industry,
- (iv) Incident method role playing, T groups (Sensitivity Training), A groups laboratory work and other group training methods to develop executive skills
- (v) managements games in-basket material, and other simulation exercises ,
- (vi) assignments in various subjects on individual and group basis ,
- (vii) field trips for observation and discussion with executives regarding the problems of industry and trade ,
- (viii) movie films, film strip cases, and other audio visual aids on various aspects of management

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

Diploma in Business Management

1 Every candidate seeking admission to the diploma in business management should have passed a Bachelor's degree examination in arts law, commerce, science, engineering or technology of any university

He should have at least two years experience at the junior executive level in a commercial or industrial establishment and should have acquired background of commercial operations He should also be sponsored by his employer

Courses of Study

The Courses in Business and Industrial Management are divided into two parts The first part in both cases consists of two years, and the second part of one final year During the first two years, there is a common course for the students of both the courses The subjects are as follows

Part I—Diploma Examination in Business and Industrial Management

- Paper I—Management Principles
 Paper II—Social and Industrial Psychology
 Paper III—Accounting & Statistical Method
 Paper IV—Economic & Legal Aspects of Business
 Paper V—Purchasing Storekeeping & Transportation

Part II—Diploma Examination in Business Management

- Paper VI—Management Practices
 Paper VII—Personnel Management

- Paper VIII—Marketing and Distribution
 Paper IX—Financial and Higher Control
 Paper X—Foreign Trade Management

Part II—Diploma Examination in Industrial Management

- Paper VI—Management Practices
 Paper VII—Personnel Management
 Paper VIII—Factory Organisation
 Paper IX—Production Planning and Control in Industry
 Paper X—Work Study and Incentives

Or

Financial and Higher Control

Or

Marketing and Distribution

Or

Development and Design

RESEARCH FACILITIES FOR THE PH D DEGREE

The Department is actively engaged in research at the faculty level and also offers facilities for research work for the Ph D Degree of the University of Delhi

Every candidate for the Ph D Course is required to pursue as a student of the University a course of research of not less than two calendar years from the date of registration. A candidate (after completion of the research) has to submit the thesis to the university subject to the approval of his supervisor. The thesis must be a piece of research work characterised either by the discovery of new facts or by a fresh interpretation of facts or theories, in either case it should evidence the candidate's capacity for critical examination and judgement.

There is also a viva voce test

Certificate Course in Office Supervision for Women

The Department of Business Management and Industrial Administration offers facilities to young women to acquire knowledge and abilities for professional careers in office management. More and more employment opportunities with prospects of promotion to higher responsible positions are now being made available to young men and women in office activities. As yet, not many young girls have shown keen interest in office activities because of lack of training. The Postgraduate Certificate Course in Office Supervision has been started with a view to meet some of these needs. The Course is exclusively for women and is a part time course for nine months of which the last two months are for practical training. Candidates who are graduates and have also completed nineteen years of age are eligible for admission.

The Delhi University has started the following courses

(i) M B A Programme

The two year full-time postgraduate programme leading to the Degree of Master of Business Administration is designed to help the young graduates who want to make professional careers in management

(ii) Post Graduate Diploma in Marketing

The awareness of the need for competent and well trained executives to handle the marketing and sales functions is growing fast because of the increasing competition in many new industries changing needs of the people, pressures of transition in the economy and the necessity of earning foreign exchange through the export of industrial products of our country. To meet this need the university has One Year Postgraduate Diploma Course in Marketing which is meant for those who are employed in commercial and industrial organisations and take part in marketing activities. The programme covers the specialised areas such as Advertising and Salesmanship, Marketing Research Sales Management and Marketing Principles. The course is part time and the classes are held in the evenings.

(iii) Postgraduate Diploma in Personnel Management

The University has one year diploma course in Personnel Management to give specialised training to those who are already employed as executives. The programme is part time and the classes are held in the evenings. The programme aims at developing the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes in the executives for successfully handling and utilising the human resources of an organisation. It covers the specialised areas such as Personnel Management—Principles and Practices Industrial Psychology, Labour Legislation, Organisational Behaviour, etc., in addition to project work.

Some universities have one or two papers on Industrial Management in the course provided for M A in economics. For example in Patna University, one of the optional groups in M A in economics is group B. It has two papers (i) Theory of Industrial Organisation and Management (ii) Indian Industrial Organisation and Management.

We are now giving some particulars of teaching for M B A (Degree of Master of Business Administration) by the Andhra University.

Master of Business Administration

Courses of Study

2. The course of study for the degree comprises

- (i) Subjects of study prescribed hereunder

- (ii) A study tour, during the period of study, of Business Enterprises for a prescribed period, and
- (iii) Short visits to Business Houses and Factories as may be arranged from time to time
- (iv) In company Training for a period of not less than ten weeks and submission of Project Report based on such Training.
- 3 The following are the subjects of study and the scheme of examination

(i) *Group A—written examination*

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>No of Papers</i>	<i>Duration of each paper</i>	<i>Maximum marks</i>
1 Principles and practice of management	One	4 hours	100
2 Managerial Economics	"	"	100
3 Financial Management	"	"	100
4 Personnel Management and Industrial relations	"	"	100
5 Enterprise and Entrepreneurship	"	3 hours	100
6 Business control	"	"	100
7 Large Scale Industries in India	"	"	100
8 Management of Public enterprises	"	"	100
(ii) Group 'B' Comprising Project Report based on In company Training			100
Total			900

Each of the written papers on (1) Principles and Practice of Management, (2) Managerial Economics, (3) Financial Management and (4) Personnel Management and Industrial Relations is set in two parts, Part 'A' carrying 60 marks and Part 'B' carrying 40 marks. In Part 'A' there are six questions and a candidate is required to answer only three questions. Part B contains one full length case problem of pages 2 to 3 in length inclusive of statistical materials if any. The case problems are set by the Paper setter concerned in consultation with the Chairman of the Board of Paper setters who determines the length of the case.

Candidates are required to answer each of the Parts 'A' and 'B' separately within the duration of 4 hours devoting not more than 2 hours for answering Part 'A' and not less than 2 hours for Part 'B'. No candidate is permitted to answer Part 'B' until he has completely answered Part 'A'.

The scope of the In company Training and Project Report based thereon, is defined in the Syllabus.

4. No candidate is permitted to appear for Group 'A' Written examination unless he has passed in Group 'B'—Project Report.

5. Marks qualifying for a pass

A candidate shall be declared to have passed the examination if he obtains (1) not less than thirty per cent of the marks in each of the written papers and not less than forty per cent in the aggregate in Group A and (2) also satisfies the Examiner in his Project Report under Group B.

Classification of successful candidates

First Class Those obtaining sixty per cent and above of the total marks

Second Class Those obtaining fifty per cent and above of the total marks

Third Class 40% and above of the total marks

The details of course of study are being furnished below

1. Principles and Practice of Management

The aim of the course is to examine the principles and practice of organisation, planning and control in a functioning and growing enterprise. The large enterprises provide the major perspective, small enterprises being discussed only briefly.

The anatomy of Organisation Organisation objective—distribution and allocation of decision making functions—units in total organisation—factors determining the break down of the total organisation—line—staff functional and regional consideration—organisation and growth of an enterprise.

Organisational structure Levels of top management and basic types of executive and operating structures, staff units—considerations governing the structural break-down—characteristic features—functions and responsibilities—organisational hierarchy, how and why.

Some organisational Principles The role and characteristics of authority—principles and practice of delegations—location of decisional centres and their rationale—analysis of decision-making authority, delegation and decision making in an organisational hierarchy, and factors governing them.

Major organisational units—Sales, Production, Finance, Personnel and Research and Development—their functions and

responsibilities—analysis of the consideration governing their set up

The problems of inter-relationships between organisational units Span of control—unity of command—line v. staff—co-ordination and communication—Management practices in these fields

Formal and informal organisation and their interdependence in an enterprise as functioning unit

The control process Top management control and the methods and scope—executive control and techniques—control practice inside each of major divisions—control process from the work level to the top management

Top management responsibility Business policy—Managing the Managers—executive development and succession—appraisal of performance of enterprise—Policy planning for tomorrow's business

Books recommended

1 Helden, Fish and Smith *Top Management, Organisation and Control*, 2 Peter Drucker *Theory and Practice of Management* 3 Urwick and Metcalfe *Dynamic Administration* 4 Simon *Theory of Administrative Behaviour*, 5 Schell *Technique of Executive Control*, 6 Learned *The Executive Action* 7 Urwick *Elements of Administration*, 8 W H Newman *Administrative Action*

Journal for reference

The Harvard Business Review

(The students must consult the journal very frequently)

2. Managerial Economics

General The aim of the course is he to indicate the uses of the tools and methods of economic analysis in formulating business policies of an enterprise

Profits Nature and measurement of profits—policies on profit maximisation—profits for management control

Competition Kinds of competitive situation—competition in a mixed economy—market structure and competitive behaviour—monopoly—oligopoly—monopolistic competition—concentration of economic power—competition and Governmental regulations

Product Policy Multiple products and their rational addition of new products—policy of dropping old ones—New products and the problem of sales mixture.

Demand Analysis Theory of demand—major factors affecting demand for a particular product—price sale relations—sale income relations—forecasting for established and new products

Costs Analysis Cost concepts—determinants of behaviour of costs and output—cost and size of plants—cost per unit of output—costs of multiple products—Costs and profit forecasting Calculation of costs for/in decision-making—problems of make or buy or alternative choices Sales problems

Sales promotion Economics of advertising—advertising budgets—measuring effects of advertising

Pricing policies—administered price—fixed prices—changing prices—pioneer pricing

Price policies and problems Basic factors in pricing—pricing objectives—pricing of products of different classes—pricing in different competitive situations—cost plus pricing—cyclical pricing, Product line pricing—general considerations and specific problems, Price differentials—geographical price differentials and geographical price structure—distributor discounts and quantity discounts Non discriminatory price differences—price discrimination and market segmentation

Capital Budgeting Its nature and problems—Types of capital expenditure—Demand and supply of capital—capital rationing

Books Recommended

- 1 Richard Alt and W C Brackford (Irwin) *Business Economics*,
- 2 Joel Dean *Managerial Economics* (Prentice Hall Inc, New York),
- 3 L A Doyk (McGraw Hill) *Economics of Business Enterprise*,
- 4 Mc Nair and Merian *Problems in Business Economics* (Mc Graw Hill Book Company), 5 Bann *Theory of Practice*, 6 Corwin D Edward *Maintaining Competition* (McGraw Hill), 7 S Arauolrit *Monopoly*—(Arawence and Wishert), 8 Wright *Business Forecasting*

Business conditions and business forecasting—The Economic climate of enterprise

3 Financial Management

General The course mainly deals with the financial problems and practices of industrial enterprises of corporate type, other non-industrial and other types being briefly referred to for comparison

A General View The financial accounting—income statement—balance-sheet—different types of assets and liabilities—different forms of securities

Planning the Capital Structure Problems of raising capital—debt versus ordinary shares versus preference shares—problems of ownership, risk and control—pricing and placing of securities—refinancing and recapitalisation—refunding of long term funds such as debentures and redeemable preference shares—amortisation of investment—earnings on investment

Factors in long term financing of a going concern as well as a new enterprise—capital budgeting and its problems

Financing current operations Nature of current financing—types of current funds such as bank borrowing, trade credit etc—current asset needs—profit and cash forecasts—programming for current funds—current financing and the budget

Intermediate financing and their problems.

Determination of net income and surplus—earnings retention—dividend policy—profits and funds administration—Earnings projection sources and application of funds

Integrated view of the financial problems of current and long term operations and capital structure of a business unit—comprehensive analysis of their different aspects and their inter-relations for purposes of policy decisions.

Comprehensive Financial Budgeting and control

Valuation of shares—valuation of enterprises—trading on the equity

Analysis of Financial Statements and their uses—methods of analysis of working capital, fixed assets, and current and fixed liabilities

Profit management and control

Books recommended for study

1. Gotham and Dougall *Corporate Financial Policy*, 2. Dockery *Modern Corporation Finance*, 3. Eitman *Graphic Budgets*, 4. American Management Association *Financial Management*, 5. Myer *Financial Statement Analysis*, 6. Pierson Hunt *Case Problems in Finance*

Books for reference :

1. Doris *Treasurer and Controller's Handbook*
2. Borgeo : *Financial Handbook*
3. Heckert *Business Budgeting*
4. Macdonald *Practical Budget Procedure*

Paper IV—Personnel Management and Industrial Relations

General The aim of the course is to study the various areas of personnel administration important for a business unit and examine some of the problems in these areas that affect workers' individual and collective action and sustained efforts

What is personnel administration—The place of a personnel administrator in an organisation—His responsibilities and relation to other departments in an enterprise

The individual in the organisation Team work and individual goals—The role of labour unions—The first line supervisor—his place and function—Organizational planning and management development

Diagnosing organization health Situational Thinking—Practical application of situational thinking—Interviewing—

Personnel Audits and Records—Labour Turnover and Internal Mobility—Complaints and Grievances

Developing and utilising Human Resources Recruitment, selection and placement—Induction and Training—performance, appraisal and promotion—Transfers and Separations—constructive discipline—communication of job changes

Remunerating Human Resources Wage and Salary policies and Administration—Methods of wage payment—Sharing the gains from higher productivity

Employee Benefits and Services—Employee health and safety—working conditions and Legal Regulations

Industrial Relations Meaning and scope—collective bargaining—Methods and Machinery for settlement of disputes, value and use of Industrial Relations Index—Joint consultation in Industry Recent trends in this area

Social Security Need for Social Security—Social, Economic needs—Broad outline of Social Security measures undertaken by the Government of India

Paul Pigors and Charles A Myers—*Personnel Administration*—McGraw Hill

Cale Yodder—*Personnel Management and Industrial Relations* North Coll, C H—*Personnel Management—Principles and Practice*—Pitman.

Charles A Myers—*Industrial Relations in India—Asia—1958*

Indian Institute of Personnel Management—*Personnel Management in India, Asia—1961*

Pigors, Myers, Malm—*Readings in Personnel Administration*—Mc Graw Hill

Kirkaldy, H S—*The Spirit of Industrial Relations*,

Indian Institute of Personnel Management—*Industrial Relations*—Quarterly

Dale Yoder and Others—*Handbook of Personnel Management and Labour Relations*

Government of India—Industrial Disputes Act of 1947
The Factories Act of 1948 Trade Union Act of 1926 Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948

5. Enterprise and Entrepreneurship

The job of Management function General view visualising the whole enterprise flow charts—the concept of the corporation—the executive function

Executive Development and succession in private and public enterprise

General The course analyses the different background elements for the management function in our times

Public policy as the setting for entrepreneurship Development of Governmental legislation, regulation, control, planned economic development and mixed economy—Private and public enterprise

The social setting and legal framework for entrepreneurship Growth and development of Joint Stock Enterprise—Free enterprise and social consciousness—Social consciousness—Social responsibilities of modern business—the problems of public relations and business ethics—Social criteria of business efficiency.

The organisational revolution The big business and its rationale—its impact on economic policy individual conduct and ethics in general—the attack on big business—a general view of the behaviour of big business

The Managerial Revolution Entrepreneurship and its changing character and perspective—Changing pattern of management Thinking—Evolution of principles and practice of management—contribution by Taylor, Gilbreth, Gantt, Mary Follett Henry Fayol, Rowntree, Elton Mayo and others—Case studies in Entrepreneurial history—changing nature of management function.

Management function—Socialist economy

Books Recommended

1 Various Government publications on Industrial policy, Five year plans Acts affecting private enterprise 2 Bowen *Social responsibilities of the Business Man* 3 *Ethics in Business Society* 4 Boulding *Organisational Revolution* 5 Glover *The Attack on Big Business*, 6 Berle *The Twentieth Century Capitalist Revolution* 7 Holbrook *The Great Moghuls*, 8 J Burnham *Managerial Revolution*, 9 Reigel *The Executive Department*, 10 Wright *Business Forecasting*

6 Business Control

General The course deals with the established routines of accounting statistical and costing methods not as ends in themselves but as instruments of managements and control—how to interpret business data, their inter relationships and their trend for purposes or appraisal of performance of the enterprise or its sectors and decision making on specific business problems No effort is made to study the Principles of Accounting, Statistics and Costing exhaustively

Production Control Analysis of Production lay out and process and organisation in different production situations—the problems of idle man and machine hours—time, motion and methods study—preparation of cost estimate of production lost under different lay outs and processes—Factors in production—planning in a business or in its different sectors—idle capacity—

master schedule—routine—delivery time—progress records—raw materials and inventory control—wastages—quality control

Elements of Accounting and Accounting Control The designing of accounting plans—their basic purposes—Analysis tabulation—inter-relationships of accounting data and reporting to management for various purposes—the projection of these data for purposes of decision making and control—problems of depreciation

Elements of Costing and Cost Control Classification of cost and their analysis—methods of cost accumulation—materials cost control—control of direct and indirect labour costs—control of production, administration and distribution overheads—analysis of costs in different operating situations for decision making—problems of alternative choice, such as make or buy

Estimated Costs versus Standard Costs—development of standard costs in different situations—variance analysis—cost-price volume relationships.

Business Budgets and Budgetary Control Control of Production, administration and distribution costs—their detailed analysis—their uses for management decision and/or guides to management control and appraisal of performance of the enterprise of its sectors Analysis of Break even points and their uses for management control and decision making

Elements of Statistics and Control Average, ratios and percentages, index numbers, seasonal cycles, and trends—the development of various statistical data or series out of the accounting and other data inside the business and the market in which it may operate their presentation for the use of management

Recommended Books

1 David R Anderson *Practical Controllershship*, 2 J Brooks Heckert and James D Wilson *Controllershship*, 3 Clarence B Nickerson *Cost Accounting* 4 A W Wilsmore *Business Budgets and Budgetary Control*, 5 J A Scott *Budgetary Control and Standard Costs*, 6 Institute of Cost and Works Accountants (Lond) Research Committee *An Introduction to Budgetary Control, Standard Costing, Material Control and Production Control*, 7 Frederick F Croxton and Dudley J Cowden *Practical Business Statistics*

Handbooks for Reference

1. L P Alford and J R Bangs (Eds) *Production Handbook*, 2 Theodore Lang (Fd) *Cost Accountant's Handbook*

7 Large-Scale Modern Industries in India

General The aim of the course is to make an intensive study of only a few selected industries prescribed for each examination

1 Cement 2 Sugar 3 Jute 4 Iron and Steel 5 Textile.
6 Tobacco 7 Fertilisers 8 Chemicals 9 Paper etc

Scope of study

These industries are to be studied from the perspectives of the other courses of study for the M.B.A degree. The students are required to develop inter industry comparisons and as far as possible also undertake case studies of business units in the different industries.

(b) The various aspects of study for each industry are as follows

History and Development—Structural pattern and location—
Technical aspects of production process—input analysis

Capital structure, investments, returns and yields

Organisation—management control—demand for products
Production—distribution and marketing practices—Pricing policies and practices

Cost—Price—Output relations

Combinations and competition

Financial policies and practices—Profits, dividends and Reserves

Personnel policies and practices

Government regulations affecting output, pricing marketing, personnel and financing aspects.

Analysis of growth and prospects

*Books Recommended**Sugar*

- 1 Gandhi, M P *The Indian Sugar Industry*
- 2 Ghosh, H H *Sugar in India Its Cultivation manufacture of Gur and White Sugar*,
- 3 Govt Publication *Report of the Indian Tariff on Sugar Industry*
- 4 Modi, M P *The Indian Sugar Industry*

Cement

- 1 Govt Publication *Report of the Indian Tariff Board regarding the Grant of Protection on Cement Industry*,
- 2 S P Deshpande *Report on the Enquiry into the Conditions of Labour in the Cement Industry in India*

Jute

- 1 *Indian Central Jute Committee Report*
- 2 Tagore P *Jute Prices and Legislation*
- 3 Wood House T *The Jute Industry from Seed to Finished Product Cloth*
- 4 Central Jute Committee *Report on the Marketing and Transport of Jute in India*
- 5 Central Jute Committee *Report on the Marketing of Jute products*
- 1 Fogharty *Studies in Industrial Organisation*
- 2 Milward *Large Scale Organisation*
- 3 Barnard *The Executive Function*,
- 4 *The Major Industries Annual*

The publications relating to cement, sugar and jute have been given here. The list of publications varies from year to year according to the industries prescribed for the year.

8 Management of State Enterprise

Principles of Public administration

The distinguishing features of the management of Public enterprise

The form of public enterprise and nature of the management

The training of managers of public enterprise

Tests of efficiency of management under public enterprise

Managerial interchanges between private and public enterprise

Industrial efficiency and the public interest reconciliation of conflicting of interests and criteria

Policy of procuring and utilising funds

Pricing policy of public enterprise

Personnel policy in a public enterprise

Books Recommended

1 Chester, D N *The Nationalised Industries* (1948) 2 Deviese, E *National Enterprise* (1946), 3 Turbio, E F M *Problems of Economic Planning* (1949), 4 Lewis B W *British Planning and Nationalization* (1951), 5 Gordon L *The Public Corporation in Great Britain* (1938), 6 Lewis, W A *The Principle of Economic Planning* (1949) 7 Keihao, W *Principles of Private and Public Planning* (1951) 8 Robson, W A *Public Enterprise* (1937) 9 Robson, W A *The Problems of Nationalised Industry* (Edited), 10 Sleeman J. F *British Public Utilities* (1953) 11 Clegg *Future of Nationalization* 12 Actors Society Trusts publications 13 British Institute of Management's pamphlets 14 Report on the efficient conduct of State enterprises in India (Gorwala Report) 15 Paul Appleby's second report on India's Administrative system with special reference to the organisation of Industrial and Commercial undertakings, 16 U N Seminar publication on the organisation and management of public Enterprises in S E Asia (held at Rangoon) 17 Morris H *Government and Parliament*, 18 Clegg *Industrial Democracy and Nationalist*

Journals

1 Indian Journal of Public Administration 2 Public Administration (Institute of Public Administration London) 3 Industrial Economics 4 Harvard Business Review

Scheme of In company Training and Project Report

1 Preparatory to the project report the students have field study of not less than ten weeks in a business house subject to the approval of the Vice Chancellor. This field study has to be taken during the summer vacation at the end of the first year of the Course

2. In the In company training the student is expected to acquaint himself with (a) the organisation and growth and (b) some aspect or aspects of the working of the enterprise, according to opportunity open to him. The dissertation which is based on the Incompany training emphasises some aspects or aspects of the enterprise while not neglecting the overall picture of the organisation.

3. For the purpose of field study and P R * each candidate is under the guidance of a teacher in the Department.

4. The field study and selection of the Business Enterprises for this purpose is the responsibility of the student concerned while the university gives the student every help in this matter.

5. The P R is to be qualified for Pass, and must be indicative of wide reading and insight into the aspect or aspects taken up for study and indicate sufficiency of analysis.

6. The P R is valued by one examiner preferably by a senior officer of the business enterprise in which the candidate has taken his field study. In the event of this not being possible, any other examiner, internal or external, is appointed to evaluate the P R.

7. The P R is submitted to the University through the department, by the end of August every year. The result of the evaluation of the P R is made known to the candidate not later than 15th of October following. In case the candidate is declared to have failed he is to be given another chance to resubmit the P R by the 30th of November following. The result of the second evaluation is made known to the candidate by 31st January of the following year. For second evaluation, the dissertation is ordinarily referred back to the original examiner.

8. If a candidate has failed in the P R he may resubmit his P R a second time as mentioned in para 7 above. If he has failed in the dissertation in two successive submissions, as mentioned in para 7 above, he may resubmit it subsequently or alternatively he may take up fresh field study in another business enterprise, subject to the approval of the Vice Chancellor, and submit a fresh P R on the basis of the same subject however, to clause 9 below.

9. Under no circumstances, a candidate for the M B A Degree is allowed to sit for the written papers, *i.e.*, group A unless he has passed in group B *i.e.*, the P R though he may be allowed to complete the study of the second year course.

The Andhra and Delhi universities provide M B A (Master in Business Administration). The universities of Aligarh, Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, and Madras provide for Diploma Courses.

*P R — Project Report

CHAPTER XXXIV

GEOGRAPHY

In the first part of this book, Prof S Mathai, while dealing with the structure of university education, has stated, "geography has been introduced as a subject of advanced study in a few universities". The following details would show how important the teaching of geography is in the context of social sciences.

We shall examine the course of studies prescribed for some of the universities for B A and M A to present the general pattern.

B A Examination

The names of some of the universities and papers are given below.

Agra—Part I—(i) elements of physical geography, (ii) any one of the following regional geography of Asia (excluding Indian Republic) or (iii) regional geography of Europe.

Part II—(i) Regional geography of Indian Republic, (ii) any one of the following—principles of human geography or economic geography of the world. Besides marks are allotted to written test and record work and viva in part I and to field work, laboratory and sessional work and record work and viva in Part II.

Bombay—Besides English, a student has to offer four other subjects. The papers in geography are (i) physical basis of geography (ii) economic geography.

Delhi—Human geography (i) physical basis of geography, (ii) economic and regional geography, (iii) map work and practical.

Gujarat—First examination (i) physical geography, (ii) India regional geography of the sub continent including Pakistan, (iii), one practical work test of two hours' duration. Second examination (i) Asia—regional geography, (ii) human geography (iii) practical work, Third examination (i) history of geographical exploration and discovery, (ii) South East Asia, (iii) any one of the following, (a) political geography (b) economic geography (iv) any one of the following (a) North America and Europe, (b) three southern continents, (v) practical work, (iv) essay.

Lucknow—Part I (i) Principles of physical geography, (ii) regional geography of North America or Europe.

Part II (i) human and economic geography, (ii) regional geography. A—Indian Republic, B—South East and Far East Asia, Malaysia, Indonesia, China and Japan only or the Middle East and the Soviet Union, (iii) surveying—map projection.

Rajasthan—(i) physical basis of geography, (ii) human and economic geography, (iii) political geography, (iv) regional geography—general regional geography, (v) India, (vi) practical work.

Utkal—(i) Physical basis of geography, (ii) regional and economic geography, (iii) practical

It is quite sufficient to analyse paper-wise the courses of studies prescribed by seven universities. We shall now analyse the composition of papers prescribed for the M A degree

M A Examination

Agra—There are eight papers out of which a candidate is required to take four papers in the previous and the remaining four papers in the final examination. Papers I and VII must be taken in the previous and paper VIII in the final and of the two remaining any two in the previous and the other three in the final examination. Papers (i) physical basis of geography (ii) principles of human geography (iii) any one of the following—*a*) regional geography of the monsoon lands (excluding Indian Republic)—countries to be included China Japan Korea Pakistan, Ceylon and countries of South East Asia or *b*) comparative and regional geography of the three southern continents or *c*) regional and economic geography of the Middle East (*iv*) any one of the following papers (*a*) regional geography of Europe (excluding Russia) or *b*) geography of U S S R or *c*) regional geography of North America, (*v*) regional geography of the Indian Republic (*vi*) (*a*) economic geography or *b*) history of geographic knowledge and discovery or *c*) political geography or *d*) urban geography or *e*) cartography or *f*) pedology or *g*) bio-geography or *h*) rural geography or *i*) anthropo geography (*iii*) practical map work, (*viii*) practical survey of areas (field work)

Gujarat—M A /M Sc in geography. Paper (i) geomorphology—papers (*ii*) and (*iii*) systematic geography of any two of the following groups—group A (1) climatology (2) oceanography, group B (1) climates of the continents (2) plant and animal geography, group C (1) principles of economic geography (2) economic geography of India, group D (1) Principles of political geography (2) political geography of Asia, group E (1) historical geography of India (2) historical geography of Europe, Group F (1) geography of population (2) geography of rural and urban settlements, group G (1) applied geography (2) statistical geography

Thus along with paper I any two groups constituting four papers bring the number of papers to five. All these papers carry 100 marks each. Besides these five papers a student has to write a dissertation of atleast 50 to 75 typed pages which carries 150 marks and practical and field work together carry 150 marks as given below. advanced surveying—50 marks, identification of rocks minerals and soils and geographical maps—50 marks and village survey—50 marks

Patna There are four compulsory papers, two special papers and two practical papers including field work. Students are expected to have knowledge of geographical thought pertaining to the broad fields covered by each of the theory papers they offer

Compulsory papers (i) geo morphology, oceanography and climatology. The subject is taught with Indian examples as far as possible and the students are expected to familiarise themselves with the geo-morphology of typical areas, (ii) geography of India with a fuller treatment of a small region which is prescribed by the board of courses and studies—for this year Chota Nagpur region has been prescribed (iii) advanced regional geography of selected countries—U S A , U S S R and Great Britain, (iv) economic and social geography. Papers (v) and (vi)—any two of the following subjects (a) plant and animal geography (b) anthropo geography, (c) principles of geology with special reference to the geology of India, (d) advanced cartography, (e) meteorology, (f) land use and planning, (g) history of geographical thought (h) political geography, (i) agricultural geography, (j) industrial geography (k) urban geography and planning. A student is allowed to offer a dissertation carrying 200 marks based on a research project in lieu of papers (v) and (vi) carrying 100 marks each, (vii) practical—identification of rocks and minerals and a study of geological maps and sections—general cartography—map projections—photography, (viii) practical—field work surveying.

Magadh—More or less on the same lines as in Patna

Madras—(i) geography of India (ii) geography of Asia—detailed study of South West Asia, the U S S R , China Japan and Central Asia, (iii) (a) North America—detailed study with special reference to Canada, U S A , Mexico, Central America, (b) Europe—with special reference to Britain, France, Switzerland, Holland and Denmark and the Western Germany, (c) Africa—detailed study with special reference to Egypt, Mediterranean sea, equatorial Africa and South Africa, (iv) (a) historical geography—historical geography in detail of one selected country—England, U S A or India, (b) political geography—the geopolitical structure of Europe with special reference to France, Switzerland and Belgium, America, U S S R and India (v) geography of industries and transport—physical and economic bases of foreign trade—theory of comparative cost and the international division of labour—geographical analysis of world trade, (vi) geography of population, and settlement—growth of population—population movements—past and present—population problems and policies—settlements—distribution and patterns of urban settlements—methods of analysis and mapping of population and settlements (vii) geographical knowledge and geographical thought, (viii) advanced study of maps and mapping

Rajasthan—There are four theory papers and a practical in M A previous and four theory papers and a practical in M A final. Each paper carries 100 marks (theory 90 and sessional 10). The candidates are required to pass separately in the practicals, M A Previous (i) physical basis of geography, (ii) principles of

human geography, papers (iii) and (iv)—any two of the following : (a) monsoon Asia (excluding Indian Republic), (b) advanced regional geography of U S A and U S S R, (c) urban geography, (v) practical

M A Final (i) Indian Republic, (ii) economic geography, papers (iii) and (iv)—any two of the following (a) three southern continents, (b) political geography, (c) evolution of geographical thought, (d) dissertation on any geographical problem or village survey—practical surveying, (v) practical

We are now giving in detail the course of studies prescribed by the Panjab University for M A in geography

M A (Part I)

There are four papers including the practical examination as under *Paper I—Physical Basis of Geography* Part I—Geomorphology (50 marks) Part II—Climatology (50 marks) *Paper II—India A Systematic and Regional Geography* Part I—Systematic (60 marks) Part II—Regional (40 marks) *Paper III—Principles of Economic and Social Geography* (100 marks). *Paper IV—Map work and Practical* Part I—Map work (written paper) (30 marks) Part II—Practical Field work, Laboratory work, Village Survey Report Evaluation of Practical Record and viva voce examination (70 marks) (i) Field work and viva voce examination on mapping instruments (15 marks) (ii) Laboratory work (20 marks) (iii) Village Survey Report (15 marks) (iv) Practical Record (10 marks) (v) Viva Voce (10 marks)

Paper I—Physical Basis of Geography Part I—Geomorphology (i) Structure of the earth (ii) Distribution of land and water, and the origin of the continents and ocean basins (iii) Isostasy—a critical discussion of the different theories (iv) Main types of earth movements (v) Mountain building origin, formation of the mountains, various theories major revolutions and associated mountain systems—Alpine, Himalayan (vi) Tension in the crust of earth—its causes and results, rift valleys, grabens, block mountains, etc

Earth Sculpture (ii) Development of the concept of cycle of erosion, Major contributions of Penck, Davis, and Passarge (iii) Evolution of land forms under the work of the following agents (a) River, (b) Underground water, (c) Glacier, (d) Wind, (e) Waves and currents (f) Volcanic activity

Part II—Climatology (i) Structure of the atmosphere, (ii) Radiation, insolation and temperature and its diurnal, seasonal and annual variations, (iii) Pressure—distribution, seasonal variations (iv) Winds, (v) Air Masses and fronts, (vi) Humidity and Precipitation, (vii) A critical study of major climatic classifications, (viii) A study of the major climatic types and regional variations within each type. Effects of such climates on vegetation, soils and animal life

Books recommended:

1. Wooldridge, S. W. and Morgan, R. S. : *An Outline of Geomorphology—the physical basis of geography.*
2. Holmes, Arthur : *Principles of Physical Geology.*
3. Lobeck, A. K. : *Geomorphology.*
4. Miller, A. A. : *Climatology.*
5. Trewartha, G. T. : *Introduction to Climate,* New York.
6. Monkhouse, F. J. : *Principles of Physical Geography.*

Books for further study :

1. Steers, J. A. : *Unstable Earth.*
2. Worcestor, P. G. : *Textbook of Geomorphology.*
3. Von Engelen, O. D. : *Geomorphology.*
4. Cotton, C. A. : *Climatic Accidents in Landscape Making.*
5. Cotton, C. A. : *Landscape as developed by the process of Normal Erosion.*
6. Thornbury, W. D. : *Principles of Geomorphology.*
7. Chhibber, H. L. : *India—Part I : Physical Basis of Geography.*
8. Kendrew, W. G. : *Climatology.*
9. Byres, H. B. : *General Meteorology.*

Paper II—India : A Systematic and Regional Geography. Part I—An outline of the systematic geography of India. Surface configuration, Climate and Drainage, Natural Vegetation ; Soils ; Agriculture : Land classification, crops, problems and policies ; Irrigation and multipurpose projects ; Mineral and Power Resources ; Industries ; Population : Growth, distribution and density ; Urbanization ; Transport ; Inland and Foreign Trade (60 marks). Part II—The problem of regional division of India ; A brief study of the regions of India (40 marks).

Books recommended

1. Spate, O. H. K. : *India and Pakistan.*
2. Chhibber, H. L. : *India : Physical Basis of Geography.*
3. Wadia, D. N. : *Geology of India.*
4. Government of India Planning Commission—First Five Year Plan and Second and Third Five Year Plans.
5. Thirumalai, S. : *Past-war Agricultural Problems and Policies in India.*
6. Deshpande, C. D. : *Western India.*
7. Government of India : *National Atlas of India.*
8. Randhawa, M. S. : *Farmers of India.*
9. *Climatological Atlas of India : Parts I and II.*
10. Davis, K. : *Population of India and Pakistan.*
11. Sharma, T. R. : *Location of Industries in India.*

Books and Journals for further study :

1. *Geographical Review of India.* Calcutta, Indian Geographical Journal, Madras ; National Geographical Journal of India, Banaras.
2. Government of India : *Agricultural Atlas of India.*
3. Dass Gupta, P. : *The Indian Jute Belt.*
4. Aiyer, A. K. Y. : *Field Crops of India.*
5. Techno : *Economic Surveys of Madras, Bihar, Assam, Manipur, Punjab and Madhya Pradesh.*
6. Randhawa, M. S. : *Agriculture and Animal Husbandry.*

*Paper III—Principles of Economic and Social Geography***Primary Production**

(i) Agriculture Significance of Agriculture, approach to the study of agriculture, The problem of agricultural classification, discussion on the criteria that may be used in an agricultural classification, world distribution and characteristics of the various types of agriculture, Shifting cultivation, rudimentary sedentary agriculture, Intensive subsistence farming, nomadic herding, live stock ranching, commercial grain farming, substance mixed farming, dairy farming, specialised horticulture, and plantation agriculture (ii) Mineral and Power Resources of the world

Secondary and Tertiary Products and Trade

(i) Theory of localization of industries—Description and analysis of the location of representative manufacturing industries Comparative analysis of major industries and major industrial regions of the world (ii) International Trade

Population—World Survey

The regional contrasts in numbers, distribution, density (especially growth pattern) of population as evidenced in the several continents

Books recommended

1 Jones, C F and Darkenwald, G C *Economic Geography* 2 Dickon, S N *A Regional Economic Geography* 3 Finch, V C Trewartha, G T, Robinson, A H and Hammond, E H *Elements of Geography* 4 Hoover, E M *The Location of Economic Activity*

Books for further study

1 James P E *The Geography of Man* 2 Woytinsky, S W and Woytinsky, E W. *World Population and Production* 3 Royen, W Van *Atlas of the World Resources*, Vol I *Agricultural Resources of the World* 4 Zimmerman, E W *World Resources and Industries* 5 Ginsburg N *Atlas of Economic Development*

Paper IV Mapwork and Practical

Part I—Mapwork (Written paper of 3 hours) (i) The problem of representation of relief on (a) small scale maps and (b) large scale maps, and a critical comparative study of various techniques employed, Physiographic methods, surface configuration maps Profiles—the drawing of profiles Serial, Longitudinal Superimposed, Composite, Projected and Reconstructed Profiles Gradient and Slope The significance of slope determination The calculation of gradient, scales of slopes, Wentworth's method of average slope determination, Smith's methods of slope analysis, Raisz and Henry methods of average slope determination

and other methods of slope analysis, hypsographic curves, clinographic curves, altimetric frequency curves. Interpretative study of 1' 1 mile Survey of India maps and O.S. maps (at least four sheets of each) (ii) Interpretation of simple geological maps of India and Britain, drawing of section from geological maps (iii) Study and interpretation of weather forecasting. At least four maps of each country to be studied.

Part II—Practical Field work, Laboratory work, Village Survey Report, Evaluation of Practical Record and viva voce examination (i) Field work and mapping instruments (a) Surveying with the help of theodolite and the use of Abney level (b) The use of pantagraph (ii) Laboratory work. Practical exercises on topics (i), (ii) and (iii) in Part I (Map work) of this paper (iii) Socio economic survey of a village and a report on the findings of the survey (iv) Practical Record (v) Viva voce on topics of Paper IV

Books recommended

1 Garroctt, Alice *Geographical Interpretation of Topographical maps* 2 Mookhouse, P.J. and Wilkinsoo, H.F. *Maps and Diagrams* 3 Dorothy Sylvester *Maps and Landscape* 4 H.M.S.O., Loodoo *Weather Map* 5 Jamesoo, A.H. and Ormsby, M.T.M. *Mathematical Geography, Vol I* 6 Robiosoo, A.H. *Elements of Cartography* 7 Dury, G.M. *Map Interpretation* 8 Chiplookar, G.W. *Geological maps*

Books for further study

1 Birch, T.W. *Maps Topographical and Statistical* 2 Usill, G.W. and Hearo, C.S.G. *Practical Surveying* 3 Thomas, H. *Surveying* 4 Threlfall, H. *Textbook of Levelling and Surveying* 5 Close, Major, C.F. *Textbook of Topographic Surveying* 6 Robinson, A.H. *Book of Maps*

PART II

MA (Part II)

There are four papers including the practical examination as under *Paper I—History of Geographic Thought* (100 marks) *Paper II—Applied Geography* (100 marks)—Section A—Problems of Agricultural Land use Planning, section B—Problems of Urban Land use Planning, section C—Regional Planning

Paper III—Any one of the following options (i) Dissertation, (ii) Mathematical Geography, (iii) Political Geography, (iv) Geography of World's Population (v) Urban Geography, (vi) Asia (India excluded) and U.S.S.R., (vii) Europe, (viii) Africa, (ix) North America, (x) Australia and Oceania, (xi) Latin America, (xii) Political Geography of the countries around the Indian Ocean, (xiii) Political Geography of East Asia

Paper IV—Mapwork and Practical Geography

Part I—Mapwork (100 marks) Part II—Fieldwork, Laboratory work, Evaluation of Practical Record and viva voce examination (70 marks) (i) Fieldwork and viva voce on mapping instruments (20 marks), (ii) Laboratory work (30 marks), (iii) Practical Record (10 marks), (iv) Viva voce (10 marks)

Paper I—History of Geographic Thought

(i) The character of geography in the classical period the work of Herodotus Eratosthenes Strabo and Ptolemy, (ii) Character of geography in the Middle Ages (iii) Revival of Geography in the 16th, 17th century, (a) The work of Varenus (b) Contributions of Humboldt and Ritter towards the advancement of geographic thought (iv) The general course of geographic thought in the second half of the 19th century (a) The development of dualism between physical and human geography (i) The influence and work of Paschel and W M Davis is that of Ratzel and Semple (ii) The attempt to develop geography purely as physical geography (Frobel and Gerland) (b) Integration in terms of "relationships" Influence of Ratzel in France, England and America (c) Integration in terms of 'areal differentiation' The influence of Richthofen Hettner, Herbertson Fenneman and Sauer (v) Evolution of thought on systematic geography (a) Relation of systematic sciences, (b) Development of general classifications and general principles (c) The relation of systematic and regional geography (ii) Evolution of thought on regional geography (a) Relative importance given to regional geography as compared with systematic geography in the past, (b) History of the concept of regions as objects or 'genuine entities', (c) Development of the concept of 'natural regions', (d) Development of the concept of comparative "cultural regions", (e) Hettner's concept of specific regions, (f) Time and genesis in geography (ii) Modern concept of geography and its place in the field of scientific study

Books Recommended

1 Hartshorne R *The Nature of Geography*, 2 Tozer Henry, F *History of Ancient Geography*, 3 Hartshorne, R *Perspective on the Nature of Geography*, 4 James, P E, and Jones C E (Editors) *American Geography*, 5 Wooldridge, S W, *East, G The Spirit and Purpose of Geography*

Books for further Study

1 Taylor, G *Geography in the Twentieth Century*, 2 Stamp, L D (editor) *London Essays in Geography*, 3 Wooldridge, S W *The Geographer as Scientist* 4 E A Ackerman *Geography as a Fundamental Research Discipline*

Paper II—Applied Geography

Nature and scope of Applied Geography Section A —Problems of Agricultural Land use Planning Land use Survey of Great

Britain—History and Techniques Land-use as a function of physical and non physical factors, Classification of Land, Types of Farming Wartime changes in Land use, 1939-45, Some basic principles of Land-use planning Possibilities of Land-use, Land capability and soil surveys in India Agricultural Land-use planning in India *Section B*—Problems of Urban Land-use Planning (i) Introduction to principles of urban geography, Internal and external spatial patterns of towns (ii) Determinants of Urban land-use (iii) Tools of urban land use planning—data collection—Processing and mapping preparatory to land-use planning Delimiting urban umlands, determination of urban economic base, urban land use classification and urban land use surveys, surveys of problem area with special reference to conditions prevailing in India *Section C*—Regional Planning Objectives and principles of regional Planning Regional Surveys for regional planning Techno economic surveys and diagnostic surveys in India

Books Recommended

1 Stamp, L D *The Land of Britain, Its Use and Misuse*, 2 Smales, A *Geogr phy of Towns*, 3. Freeman, T. *Geography and Planning* 4 Stamp, L D *Applied Geography* 5 Chapin, S *Urban Land Use Planning* 6 Tyrwhitt, A (Ed) *Patrick Geddes in India* 7 Glikson, A *Regional Planning and Development*, Sijthoff, 1955 8 *Regional Planning Housing, Building and Plannings*

Books for Further Study

1 James, Preston E - *American Geography Inventory and Prospect*, 2. Mayer, H M, and Kolb K (editors) *Reading in Urban Geography*, 3 Ratchiff R U *Urban Land Economics*, 4 Breese, G., and Whitemen, D F *An Approach to Urban Planning*, 5 Griffiths, P J *Better Towns A Study of Urban Reconstruction in India*

Paper III—Option (i)—Dissertation

A dissertation on any approved subject evincing capacity for independent investigation on geographical problems

Paper III—Option (ii)—Mathematical Geography

(i) Celestial spheres, determination of latitude, longitude and azimuth, solar and sidereal time, shape and size of the earth, geodetic surveys (ii) Traverse co ordinates, traverse and triangulation, triangulation co ordinates convergence of meridians, levels in triangulation, resection in triangulation (iii) Photographic Surveying—approximate surveys from Panoram photographs, photo theodolite, stereographic survey, air photographs, rectification of air photographs and mosaics (iv) Right angled spherical triangles—application to distance and directions on the

earth and to geodetic surveying and astronomical problems (v) Map Projections general principles cylindrical conical zenithal (polar and equatorial cases) sinusoidal and Mollweide's (normal and interrupted cases) Gall's Cassini's and Ansoff's Projections

An elementary knowledge of plane and spherical trigonometry is required

Books Recommended

- 1 Jameson, A H, and Ormsby, M T M — *Mathematical Geography, Vols I and II*
- 2 Kellaway, George P — *Map Projection*,
- 3 Steers J A — *Introduction to the Study of Map Projection*,
- 4 Threlfall, H — *Textbook for Surveying and Levelling*,
- 5 Nascau, J J — *Practical Astronomy*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Close, Major C F — *Textbook of Topographical Surveying*
- 2 Raisz C — *General Cartography*,
- 3 Monkhouse F J and Wilkinson H R — *Maps and Diagrams*,
- 4 Campbell — *Practical Astronomy*,
- 5 Homer — *Practical Astronomy*,
- 6 Smart W M — *Foundations of Astronomy*

Paper III—Option (iii)—Political Geography

(i) Nature and scope of political geography political geographical thought and its critique (ii) Elements of Political Geography — (a) Physical elements (b) Economic elements (c) Human elements (iii) Special aspects of political Geography (a) Frontiers and Boundaries, (b) Demographic Factors in Inter State Relationships, (c) Colonies (iv) The Geopolitical significance of the current world problems (v) The World Powers (a) India and Pakistan, (b) The geopolitical strength of the United States, (c) The Soviet Union, Dynamics of the Eurasian Heartland, (d) The British Commonwealth and Empire, geopolitics of extended domain, (e) Other powers.

Books Recommended

- 1 Valkenburg, S V, and Stetzel, C L — *Elements of Political Geography*
- 2 Moodie A E — *Geography Behind Politics*,
- 3 Goblet, Y M — *Political Geography and the World Map*
- 4 Weight, H. W, and others — *New Compass of the World*
- 5 Whittlesey, D — *The Earth and the State*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Bowman I — *The New World Problems in Political Geography*
- 2 Pearcey, G E, and Associates, T Y Crowell — *World Political Geography*

Paper III—Option (iv)—Geography of World's Population

- 1 Importance of population geography as a special field of study, History of development of this branch of geography
- 2 A regional

analysis of the following attributes of World's Population (i) Numbers, distribution and density, (ii) Vital rates, birth rate and death rate (iii) Migration, internal and external, (iv) Growth of Population (v) Sex and age structure, (vi) Literacy, (vii) Urbanization, (viii) Occupational structure of rural and urban population separately 3 Population problem, of India, China, Japan, U S A and U S S R

Books Recommended

1 Finch, V C, Trewartha, G T, Robinson A H, and Hammond E H *Elements of Geography*, 2 Woytinsky, S W and Woytinsky, E W *World Population and Production*, 3 United Nations *The Determinants and Consequences of Population*, 4 United Nations *Demographic Yearbook*, New York (of the latest year), 5 Lorimer, Frank *The Population of the Soviet Union, History and Prospects* 6 Balfour, M C, Evans, R F, Noestein F W., and Taeuber I B *Public Health and Demography in the Far East*, 7 Smith T Lynn *Population Analysis*, 8 Taeuber, I B *Population of Japan*, 9 Davis, Kingsley *The Population of India and Pakistan* 10 Gopalaswamy, R A *Census of India, 1951, Vol I, Part I—A Report*

Books for Further Study

1 Kirk, Dudley *Europe's Population in the 'Inter War Years* 2 Bowman I *Limits of Land Settlement A Report on Present-day Possibilities*, 3 *World Population and Resources by Political and Economic Planning* 4 Spiegelmen, M *Introduction to Demography*

Paper III—Option (v)—Urban Geography

1 Importance and Scope of Urban Geography as one of the branches of geography 2 Definition of urban places and an analysis of urbanization with special reference to India, Western Europe and U S A 3 (i) Rise of the city through historical times, (ii) Site and location of cities, (iii) Distribution and spacing of cities, (iv) The city as a core of a region—urban umland or service area 4 (i) The functional approach to urban analysis, (ii) Internal spatial relations and pattern of cities—land use structure and morphology, (iii) Physical growth and change in the City 5 Urban Geography applied to city planning with special reference to the U S A, U K and India

Books Recommended

1 Smailes A E *The Geography of Towns* 2 Dickinson, P E *The West European City* 3 James, P E, and Jones C F (editors) *American Geography Inventory and Prospect*, 4 Chapin, F S *Urban Land Use Planning* 5 Dickinson R E—City, Region and Regionalism 6 Mayer H M and Kohn, C F. (editors) *Readings in Urban Geography*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Mumford L *Culture of Cities* 2 Quinn J A *Urban Sociology*, 3 Davis Kingsley and Hertz Hilda *Patterns of World Urbanization*, 4 Ratchiff R U *Urban Land Economics* 5 Singh, R L — *Banaras A Study in Urban Geography*, 6 Bartholomew, H *Land Use in American Cities* 7 Tyrwhitt J (editor) *Percival Geddes in India*, 8 Griffith P J — *Better Towns: A Study of Urban Reconstruction in India*

Paper III—Option (vi)—Asia (India excluded) and U S S R

- (a) Surface configuration climate drainage, vegetation, soils, populations, mineral resources agriculture industries transport and trade (b) Regional study of the following U S S R, Japan China, Indonesia Burma, Pakistan, Iraq and Turkey

Books Recommended

- 1 Cressey, G B — *Land of 500 Million* 2 Trewartha G T — *Japan* 3 Stamp L D — *Asia* 4 Fisher W B *The Middle East*, 5 Gregory, J S Shave, D W *U S S R*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Spencer, J E *Asia East by South*, 2 Spate O H K, and East G *Changing Map of Asia*

Paper III—Option (vii)—Europe

- (a) Surface configuration climate, drainage, vegetation soils, mineral resources, agriculture industries, population, transport and trade

- (b) Regional study of the following countries Italy, France West and East Germany British Isles Sweden Poland, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia U S S R (both European and Asian)

Books Recommended

- 1 Gottman Jean *Geography of Europe* 2 Ogilvie Allan *Europe and Its Borderlands* 3 Shackleton M R *Regional Geography of Europe*, 4 Valkenburg S V and Huntington E *Europe* 5 Hoffman *Geography of Europe* 6 Monkhouse *Western Europe*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Stamp L D *British Isles* 2 Ormsby, H *France*, 3 Newbigin M I *Southern Europe* 4 Demangeon A and Laborde E D *British Isles*

Paper III—Option (viii)—Africa

- 1 Physical background to the study of the economic and social geography of Africa (i) Surface configuration (ii) climate (iii) natural vegetation and (iv) soils 2 Resource pattern and

resource use (i) Forests, (ii) fisheries, (iii) minerals, (iv) water, (v) agriculture including animal husbandry, (vi) processing and manufacturing industries 3 Communications and trade (i) Road rail, water and air communication, recent developments (ii) Share in world trade, direction and commodity pattern of trade, internal trade Recent trends Ports and hinter lands 4 Social Geography Tribal structure and multiracial society Distribution and density of population population and food supply Population trends 5 Regional Geography of (i) Ghana, (ii) Nigeria (iii) The Congo, (iv) Uganda, (v) Egypt, (vi) Union of South Africa

Books Recommended

- 1 Fitzgerald, W *Africa A Social, Economic and Political Geography of its Major Regions*, 2 Stamp, L D *Africa Study in Tropical Development*, 3 Kimble, G H T *Tropical Africa*, 2 Vols., 4 Buchanan and Pugh *Land and People of Nigeria*, 5 Boating, E A *A Geography of Ghana*, 6 Wellington *Southern Africa*, 2 Vols

Books for Further Study

- 1 Stamp, L D (Ed) *Natural Resources Food and Population in Inter tropical Africa*, 2 Church, R J H *West Africa*, 3 Gourou, P *Tropical World*

Paper III—Option (ix)—North America

(a) Surface configuration climate drainage, vegetation, soils, mineral resources, agriculture industries population, transport and trade (b) The problem of dividing North America into regions, detailed study of each region

Books Recommended

- 1 White C L, and Foscue, E J *Regional Geography of Anglo American*, 2 Smith, J Russel and Phillips, O *North America*, 3 Jones and Bryan *North America*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Russel, I C *North America*, 2 Brown, R *Historical Geography of the United States*

Paper III—Option (x)—Australia and Oceania

(a) Surface configuration, climate drainage vegetation, soils, mineral resources agriculture industries population transport and trade (b) Regional study of Australia, New Zealand, Tasmania and Fiji Islands

Books Recommended

- 1 Comberland, K B *South West Pacific*, 2 Taylor, G *Australia*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Laborde, E D *Australia and New Zealand*, 2 Wood etc. , *Land Utilization in Australia* 3 Wood—*Australia Its Resources and Development*, 4 Freeman *The Geography of the Pacific*

Paper III—Option (xi)—Latin America

(a) Surface configuration, climate, drainage, soils, vegetation, mineral resources agriculture, industries, population, transport and trade, (b) Regional study of Brazil, Argentina, Chile, Venezuela and Bolivia.

Books Recommended

- 1 James, P. E *Latin America*, 2 Jones, C F *South America*, 3 Shanahan *South America*, 4 Platt, R *Latin America*

Books for Further Study

- 1 Whitteck and Williams *Economic Geography of South America*, 2 Himmicuit—*Brazil World Frontier*

Paper III—Option (xii)—Political Geography of the Countries around the Indian Ocean (with special reference to India, Ceylon, Burma, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Tanganyika, Kenya, Mozambique, Union of South Africa)

Papper III—Option (xiii)—Political Geography of East Asia (with special reference to Japan, China, Korea, Philippines, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, Cambodia, Thailand and Laos)

Books recommended

(For options (xii) and (xiii))

- 1 Moodie, A E *Geography Behind Politics*, 2 Goblet, Y M *Political Geography and the World Map*, 3 Weight, H W and others *New Compass of the World*, 4 Spate, O H K and East G *Changing Map of Asia*, 5 Fisher, C *South East Asia*, 6 Pounds, Norman *Political Geography*

Paper IV—Mapwork and Practical Geography

Part I—Mapwork (written paper of 3 hours)

(i) Representation of climatic and economic Data Isopleths maps Isobars, isohyets, isotherms, isopleths of duration, date isopleths, frequency, isopleths isonomals (isopleths of anomalies). Columnar diagrams linergraphs wind rose diagrams, climographs, ergographs hythergraphs choropleth maps Histograms dispersion diagrams and maps showing variability of rainfall dot maps, graduated circles and flowline maps (ii) Interpretation of aerial photographs (iii) Map projections (a) General principles, classification identification transformation and choice of projections, (b) Construction, properties, limitations and use of the following map-projections Cylindricals—Plate Carree, Lambert's equal

area, and Mercator's orthomorphic Conicals—one standard conic two standard conic, Bonne's Polyconic and international Zenithals—equidistant and equal area (Polar cases only) Gnomonic, stereographic and orthographic (polar and equatorial cases) Conventional—Sinusoidal (normal), Interrupted sinusoidal, Mollweide's normal and interrupted.

Part II—Fieldwork, Laboratory work, Evaluation of Practical Record and Viva voce examination (i) Fieldwork (a) Use of Dumpy Level and Indian Clinometer, (b) Use of Planimeter and proportional compass (ii) Laboratory work Practical exercises on topics (i), (ii) and (iii) in Part I (Map work) of this paper, (iii) Practical Record, (iv) Viva voce on topics of Paper IV

Books recommended

1 Jameson A H and Ormsby, M T M *Mathematical Geography*, Vol II 2 Mainwaring, James *Study of Map Projection*, 3 Steers, J A : *Introduction to the Study of Map Projection*, 4 Veale, C J *Surveying (Part I)*, 5 Robinson A H *Elements of Cartography*, 6. Monkhouse and Wilkinson, *Maps and Diagrams*

Books for Further Study

1 Close, Major, C F *Textbook of Topographic Surveying*, 2 Threlfall, H. *Textbook of Levelling and Surveying* 3 Usill, G W and Hearn C H J *Principal Surveying*.

These details of teaching have been furnished to provide a complete picture of the topics covered in this discipline by the Indian universities. Geography, though upgraded in some universities, has still not been recognised by many of the universities as a discipline important enough for the M A degree. The following table gives the strength of students in M A and Ph D in 1964 65

TABLE I
M A (Both Previous and Final) and Ph D. Enrolments in
Geography, 1964 65

	University departments	Affiliated colleges	Total
<i>Geography</i>			1 643
1 M A (both previous and final)	749	896	1 645
2 M Sc	310	38	348
3 Ph D (faculty of arts)	65	29	94
4 Ph D (faculty of science)	47	—	47
<i>Human Geography</i>			10
5 M A (both previous and final)	10	—	10
6 Ph D	6	—	6
Total	1,187	1,013	2 200

TABLE II

Number of Theses Accepted for the Award of Doctorate Degree in Geography During the Years 1960-61 to 1963-64

<i>Faculty</i>	<i>1960-61</i>	<i>1961-62</i>	<i>1962-63</i>	<i>1963-64</i>
1 Faculty of Arts	8	6	8	6
2 Faculty of Science	2	4	2	—
Total	10	10	10	6

TABLE III

University-wise Distribution of Doctoral Theses in Geography During the Years 1960-61 to 1963-64

	<i>1960-61</i>	<i>1961-62</i>	<i>1962-63</i>	<i>1963-64</i>
<i>Faculty of Arts</i>				
Agra	6	1	4	2
Banaras	—	—	4	3
Bombay	—	1	—	—
Calcutta	—	2	—	—
Panjab	—	1	—	—
Patna	2	—	—	—
Poona	—	1	—	—
Rajasthan	—	—	—	1
Total	8	6	8	6
<i>Faculty of Science</i>				
Aligarh	1	2	2	—
Calcutta	—	1	—	—
Saugor	1	1	—	—
Total	2	4	2	—

The above indicates that we may, in the matter of teaching geography, assign place of preference to the universities of Agra, Aligarh, Banaras, Bombay, Calcutta, Panjab, Poona, Patna, Rajasthan and Saugor.

SECTION VI : STATISTICAL SCIENCES

CHAPTER XXXV

STATISTICS

The UNESCO published in 1957 "Statistics" in the University Teaching of Social Science series and thereby recognised the teaching of statistics as a distinct discipline. As stated by us earlier, no discipline can be said to be independent in the absolute sense. Every discipline overlaps some parts or other of some of the other disciplines, but when a discipline assumes sufficient importance and reaches a full fledged stage, it is generally given the status of a distinct discipline.

Here in India, the writer of these lines has accepted that discipline as distinct and of sufficient importance, as has been considered suitable for the award of a M A degree in it by a university. In part I of this book statistics has not been assigned any place of recognised importance, but since several of the Indian universities are teaching statistics and awarding M A degree in it and since almost all universities teach statistics in B A, this discipline is being attached, in India—as elsewhere—increasing importance and it is but right and proper to include teaching of statistics in part II.

Statistics can be broadly divided into two sections (i) mathematical statistics and (ii) economic statistics. In fact the statistical sciences are important disciplines, for demography and statistics are the process by which we arrive at certain conclusions and it is for us to harness these statistical sciences to any study we desire inferences from. For economics or commerce or political science, for military or scientific purposes the study of statistics is one of the essential ingredients and therefore statistics has generally been included in the study of economics.

The study of statistics in Indian Universities commenced more than forty years back.

<i>Year</i>	<i>University</i>	
1924	Mysore	pass and honours course.
1941	Calcutta	postgraduate course.
1942	Mysore	M Sc in Statistics
1944	Kerala	,
1948	Bombay	„

Statistics is now being taught at almost all the universities, which teach mathematics or economics. At some places, it is taught as an independent discipline—at others as ancillary. Special mention may be made of the Indian Statistical Institute

at Calcutta. The primary object of this Institute is to promote the study of statistics, both pure and applied and allied subjects and to provide for research and instruction for the advancement of the study and dissemination of knowledge of statistics and allied subjects. The teaching and research at this centre have made a valuable contribution to the study of statistics, as an independent discipline and providing statisticians to the country, where both in the government and outside there is growing demand for scholars in statistical sciences. This demand has been expanding due to the work of the planning commission, and the number of projects—both in the public and the private sector—which have been multiplying. Also expansion in banking and commerce and the insurance companies has reinforced the demand for larger and larger well qualified persons.

Mention may be made of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi which also imparts teaching in statistics, but as the department is mainly interested in matters agricultural, the training of candidates is also with a view to qualify them, specially for agricultural statistics.

The following Universities, among others, teach statistics.

Agra, Aligarh Annamalai, Benares Baroda Bihar, Calcutta, Gauhati, Gujarat Lucknow, Madras, Mysore, Nagpur, Osmania, Poona Saugor, Travandrum. This was the position till 1926. Now almost all universities have included statistics as a subject, but in a number of them, it is included in economics while in others in mathematics. Even where statistics is taught as an independent discipline, students for M.A. in economics have the option to offer economics and demography as one of the optional papers. In mathematics in B.A., certain universities have prescribed a compulsory paper, while others have made it optional and a student may offer astronomy or some other paper instead of statistics. But for M.A. in mathematics, a student has to appear in at least one paper of statistics.

In some universities like Delhi and Madras, Diploma in Statistics is awarded to graduates who attend a two year course in statistics and pass the examination. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research awards a postgraduate diploma after two years' study. The Indian Statistical Institute has a three year training course, only those candidates are admitted who already hold a master's degree.

B A Degree

Now to give a concrete idea about details of teaching of statistics in Indian universities, statistics is one of the subjects a student may offer for the B.A. degree. The teaching at Bombay covers the following (i) mathematical analysis, (ii) statistical mathematics and calculus of probabilities, (iii) elements of statistical inference and practical statistics and (iv) applied statistics and econometrics.

Subjects (i), (ii) and (iii) are compulsory. Candidates offering statistics group cannot offer statistical methods in the group 'economics' and mathematical statistics in the group "mathematics" in lieu of (iv) applied statistics and econometrics of the B A (special) examination. The second paper in group (iii) is a practical paper and 20 marks are reserved for (i) the laboratory note-book and (ii) a viva voce test at the time of the practical examination.

M A Degree

We are giving particulars of course of studies prescribed for M A. by the Utkal University

There are six theoretical and two practical papers in Statistics each carrying 100 marks. The duration of each theoretical and practical paper is four and six hours respectively.

PART I

Paper I—Mathematics. (a) Algebra, (b) Analysis. Paper II—Probability and Numerical Analysis (a) Probability, (b) Numerical Analysis. Paper III—Statistical Methods. Paper IV—Practicals (a) Practicals, (b) Records, (c) Viva Voce.

PART II

Paper V—Advanced Theory of Statistics (a) Estimation and Test of Hypothesis, (b) Sequential Analysis and Multivariate Analysis. Paper VI—Design of Experiments and sample Surveys (a) Design of Experiments, (b) Sample Surveys. Paper VII—Applied Statistics (a) Economic and official Statistics (b) Vital and Educational Statistics and Statistical Quality Control. Paper VIII—Practical (a) Practicals, (b) Records, (c) Viva-Voce.

PART I

Paper I—Mathematical Preliminaries

(a) Algebra —Determinants, Matrices—Addition, multiplication, rank, characteristic equation, latent roots, unit and Inverse matrices

Orthogonal transformations. Orthogonal matrices. quadratic forms, Reduction of quadratic forms

Elements of N dimensional Euclidian Geometry, Flats and lines, distances and angles

(b) Analysis —Convergence of infinite Sequences and series. Uniform convergence, Integration, Infinite Integrals with special reference to convergence, Integration, Infinite Integrals with special reference to β and ζ functions, Double and Multiple Integrals, Orthogonal polynomials for summation over a finite number of equidistant points, Hermite—Teche bycheff's polynomials

Complex numbers, Argand's diagram analytic functions of a complex variable. Cauchy's theorem (Proof by use of Greens' theorem) Theory of residues and contour integration

Paper II—(a) Probability —Definition of Probability, Probability Field, Random variables, Distributions Joint, marginal and conditional probabilities, Addition and multiplication rules, Moments of a distribution, Discrete and continuous distributions, Characteristic functions, Levy Inversion theorem, First Limit theorem, Convergence in probability, Bernoulli's theorem, Tchebycheff's Inequality, Weak Law of large numbers, Repeatable experiments Sample space Frequency Interpretation of Probability, Central Limit Theorem, Kolmogorov's law of large numbers, General idea of the Second Limit Theorem Probability in Continuum

(b) Numerical Analysis —Interpolation formulae (Newton, Lagrange Gauss, Stirling and Bessel) Inverse Interpolation, double interpolation Numerical differentiation and integration Numerical solution of linear equations Difference equations of 1st and the 2nd order

Paper III—Statistical Methods (a) Descriptive Statistics —Collection and classification of Data, Diagrammatic representation Continuous and discrete variates Frequency Distributions, Moments and cumulants.

Standard Distributions—Binomial, Poisson, Normal, Rectangular and the Pearsonian system, Bivariate and Multivariate Normal Distributions and their properties, principles of least squares, regression and correlation, Simple, partial and multiple.

(b) Large sample Theory Standard errors, large sample tests of independence and tests of goodness of fit

(c) Sampling Distributions —Sample and population, Concept of Sampling distributions of mean variance, correlation coefficient and regression co-efficient from normal distribution Distributions of T , F and X^2 Fisher's Z transformation Tests based on the above distributions

Paper IV Practical—Practical based on Paper II and III

PART II

Paper V—Advanced Theory of Statistics

(a) Estimation and tests of hypothesis

Point estimation, properties of estimators, consistency, sufficiency, efficiency, Methods of estimation—properties of maximum likelihood estimators Interval estimation, confidence intervals and fiducial inferences

Simple and composite hypotheses, Neyman Pearson theory. Choice of best critical region Uniformly most powerful tests, unbiased tests, Likelihood Ratio tests

(b) Sequential Analysis and multivariate analysis —

Wald's sequential probability ratio tests OC and ASN functions

Sequential tests relating to the mean, standard deviation of a normal population and for a binomial proportion

Multivariate Analysis including Wishart's and Hotellings Distribution and related tests, Discriminant Analysis and canonical correlation.

Paper VI (Applied)—Design of Experiments and Sample Surveys

(a) Design of Experiments —

Linear estimation and Mark of theorem analysis of variance and covariance, principles of experimental designs — randomised blocks, latin Squares, missing plot technique, factorial experiments, confounding, split pot, Graeco Latin squares balanced incomplete block designs

(b) Sample Surveys —

Selection of sample, principles of sampling, simple, random, stratified, multistage and systematic, ratio and regression estimates

Designing a survey—cost and variance functions, Current sample surveys in India

Paper VII—Applied Statistics

(a) Economic and official statistics .—

Construction and uses index numbers, Time Series Analysis of trend, seasonal variation, correlogram analysis, autoregressive series

Sources and nature of current official Statistics, methods of compilation, presentation and their critical study

(b) Vital and Educational statistics and statistical quality control

Various rates and ratios and their uses and methods of constructing them Characteristics of stationary and stable populations, construction of life table, growth curves

Meaning of true score, concept of parallel tests, measures of reliability and validity

Specification and standardization of quality, control charts, acceptance sampling—Single, double and sequential sampling plans

PAPER VIII

Practical—Practical based on Papers VI and VII

Books Recommended

Aitkin A C *Determinants and Matrices*, Ferror, W L *Algebra*, Levi, F W *Algebra*, Wade T L *Algebra of Vectors and Matrices*, Gibson, G E *Advanced Calculus*, Hardy, G H *Pure Mathematics*, Whittaker and Watson *Modern Analysis*, Mac Rebert

11. Measures of variability.
12. Frequency curves and normal probability curve.
13. Principles of correlation (Spearman's methods of calculating the co efficient of correlation)

With regard to items 8 to 13 above stress is required to be laid on *statistical methods* :

2. Reference is invited to the course of studies provided for B.A. in psychology where certain topics require statistical knowledge, particularly paper II—Experimental psychology practical including testing and elementary statistics.

3. Paper II in Economics group pertains to statistical methods. The details of teaching for this paper are given below :

Statistical Methods

Paper I Theory of probability—theorem on probability—distribution, binomial, poisson, normal, univariate and bivariate, t , X^2 , F and Z . Moments, Sheppard's correction for grouping—curve fitting and tests of goodness of fit—multiple regression and correlation methods—elements of statistical inference—estimation methods and test of significance—association and contingency—Yule's coefficients of colligation—elements of analysis and interpretation of economic data.

Paper II. A. Elements of the theory of sample surveys : simple random-sampling, stratified, two stage sampling—regression and ratio estimates—non-sampling errors.

Applications of the theory to estimation of agricultural cost of production, national income, etc.

B. The theory of Index Numbers—types of index numbers—computation of index numbers—the problem of aggregation—uses and limitations of index numbers.

C. Elements of Input-Output methods—as a technique of planning, methods of computing input-output coefficients—difficulties and drawbacks—input-output tables for India, U.S.A., Canada, U.K., U.S.S.R.

D. Indian official statistics, methods of collection and computation, sources and their reliability. A critical study with respect to different sectors.

Calcutta University

We are now giving in detail the course prescribed by Calcutta University for M.A./M.Sc. in statistics.

Statistics

Paper I : First Half

Probability, Mathematical Analysis.

Probability—Classical definition of mathematical probability, the laws of compound and total probability, mathematical expectations, Tshebysheff's and Khintchin's law of large numbers, convergence of sequence of random variables. Kolmogoroff's law

of large numbers, continuous probability, inverse probability and Baye's theorem, characteristic functions and their applications, Glivenko-Cantelli's theorem.

Analysis—Convergence of infinite series and sequence, uniform convergence, continuous functions, Riemann integrals, double integral, transformation of multiple integrals, analytic function of a complex variable, Cauchy's theorem, Taylor's and Laurent series, residues, evaluation of integrals

Paper I Second Half

Algebra, Numerical Analysis

Algebra—Linear Algebra, Vectrospace, Orthogonal transformations, Matrices, Determinants, Quadratic forms, Reduction of quadratic forms

Numerical analysis—Interpolation formulae with errors (Newton, Lagrange, Gauss Stirling Bessel and Everett), inverse interpolation, subtabulation, double interpolation, numerical differentiation, numerical integration Remainder in Euler-Maclaurin form, Stirling's approximation for the factorial, numerical solution of equation, approximation of periodic function by a finite Fourier's series—12 ordinate scheme Numerical solution of Differential Equation, Solution of Differential equation by the method of 'Relaxation'

Evaluation of incomplete probability integrals of important multivariate distributions, classical and studentised D^2 -statistic, and p-statistics (under null hypothesis), recurrence relations and the construction of statistical tables

Paper II First Half

Statistical Methods and Sampling Distributions from Univariate and Bivariate Distributions

Descriptive Statistics—Pearsonian and Gram-Charlier systems of frequency curves, Bessel curves, graduation of frequency curves, the normal curve and its properties, bivariate data, coefficients of association, correlation and linear regression, correlation ratio and curvilinear regression—orthogonal polynomials, rank correlation, intra-class correlation, bivariate normal distribution and its properties, multivariate data, multiple regression and correlation, partial correlation, partial regression, multivariate normal distribution and its properties, study of structural relationship, confluence analysis, estimation of simultaneous equation system, etc., theory of errors and methods of least squares

Sampling Distribution—Distribution of linear functions of normal variates, distribution of central and non central χ^2 , sum of χ^2 's, ratio of two χ^2 's, distribution of simple correlation and regression

Paper II Second Half

Multivariate Analysis, Large Sample Theory.

Sampling Distributions—Distribution of multiple correlation and partial correlation, distributions connected with tests of significance of partial regression coefficients and linearity of regression, joint distribution of variances and covariances from a normal multivariate population Distribution of Hotelling's T^2

Large Sample Theory—Limit theorems, distribution of the statistics p , t , z , χ^2 in the large sample, transformation of variates—its application to p , s , r , distribution of frequency χ^2 and its applications, standard errors of moment statistics, cumulants, distribution of percentiles, Sheppard's corrections

Paper III . First Half

Theory of Inference I.

Theory of point estimation, consistency, efficiency and sufficiency, maximum likelihood estimates and their properties, information theory, estimation by intervals

Elements of non parametric inference (estimation). Elements of decision theory (estimation)

Paper III . Second Half

Theory of Inference II

Theory of Testing of hypothesis, simple and composite hypothesis, different types of optimum critical regions— A and A_1 , B and B_1 , C and D , status of all the well-known tests of significance, theory of sequential tests

Elements of non parametric inference Elements of decision theory

Paper V First Half

Sample Survey, Genetics.

Sample Surveys—General concepts sampling frames, records, forms questionnaires, etc , Organisation of field—investigation and processing of data of sample surveys, Observational errors, writing of reports Any recent sample surveys in India

Detailed study of two stage sampling, general multi-stage sampling ("equal size" case without $f p c$) stratified, sampling with fixed units, stratified area sampling with units of variable size but constant within stratum, systematic sampling for one-dimensional, discrete sequence, double sampling with one auxiliary variate Topographic variation—contour maps, space correlation and different types of statistical fields

Genetics—Descriptive genetics, elements of cytology, autosomal and chromosomal inheritances for a single character and for more than one character with or without linkage, chromosomal and autosomal maps human genetics and blood groups, application of statistical methods to genetics method for testing Mendelian hypothesis for individual character and for detection and

estimation of linkage in simple cases, combined estimation and testing heterogeneity, study of disturbed segregations methods for the detection and estimation of linkage in human genetics

Paper V Second Half

Design and Analysis of Experiments

Theory of Linear Estimation—The estimation and the error spaces, the fundamental theorem of linear estimation and the theory of least squares, sum of squares belonging to one or more degrees of freedom, the analysis of variance and co variance

Analysis and Construction of Experimental Designs—Incomplete block design including balanced and partially balanced designs, group divisible designs and lattice designs two way elimination of heterogeneity Latin squares and Youden squares, the combinatorial problems of the construction of orthogonal sets of Latin squares and balanced and partially balanced incomplete block designs, inter block and intra block information, missing plot technique, factorial experiments, confounding and its use, partial confounding and balancing detailed confounding and its use, partial confounding and balancing, detailed study of confounding and balancing of $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 3^1$, and 3^2 designs, simple types of asymmetrical factorial designs split plot designs, quasialatin squares, double confounding, fractional replications, weighing designs

Paper VI First Half

Economic Statistics, Quality Control

Economic Statistics—Index numbers of prices, cost of living and production, time series trends—seasonal for accountable causes—harmonic analysis—forecasting and correlation of time series, national dividend—Pareto's Law of income distribution, family budget enquiries—Engel's curves, demand analysis for non-durable consumer's goods from time series and family budget data, indifference curves

Official Statistics—Discussion of the current official statistics of India—methods of compilation, presentation and their critical study

Statistical Quality Control—Concept of total quality control, control charts, sampling inspection plans (single, double and sequential), sampling inspection for continuous production, standardization and specification, work sampling

Paper VI Second Half

Psychometry, Demography and Bioassay

Psychometry—Psychophysical laws, theory of mental tests, problem of weighting and differential prediction, problems of classification and discrimination, factor analysis, scaling procedures

Demography—Sources of vital statistics, construction of mortality tables, standardization of rates, fertility table, computation of standard indices of population growth, stationary

population, graduation by Makeham's Law and Gompertz Law, standard tables and summation method, population dynamics and logistic curve

Bioassay — Direct assays, quantitative dose-response relationships, parallel line assays, probit transformations

Papers VII and VIII are practicals

Statistics under other disciplines in M A.

Statistics forms part of teaching in M A in commerce, economics sociology social work and psychology For example

Statistics under Psychology In Gujarat University M A part II (psychology) a candidate has to take three optional papers out of sixteen (1) advanced experimental psychology, (2) psychometry, (3) advanced physiological psychology, (4) advanced comparative psychology (5) advanced abnormal psychology, (6) clinical psychology, (7) psychology of personality, (8) industrial psychology, (9) human relations in industry, (10) psychological testing, (11) developmental psychology, (12) educational psychology, (13) educational and vocational psychology, (14) psychology of crime and delinquency, (15) Indian psychology, (16) statistical inference

These papers are distributed in areas (groups) as follows

Area	I	Experimental psychology	Papers	1, 16, 3
"	II	Clinical Psychology	"	5, 6, 10
"	III	Industrial Psychology	"	8, 9, 10
"	IV	Criminology Psychology	"	14, 5, 7
"	V	Educational Psychology	"	12, 11, 10
"	VI	Educational and Vocational guidance	"	13, 10, 8
"	VII	Psychological Testing	"	10, 2, 16
"	VIII	Indian Psychology	"	15, 3, 7

With each group, a candidate has to present a dissertation pertaining to that group

Thus, candidates opting for areas I or VII have to offer statistical inference The course prescribed is as follows

Statistical Inference

- 1 Linear Regression and Prediction
- 2 Further Methods of Correlation
- 3 Partial and Multiple Correlation
- 4 Analysis of Variance
- 5 Analysis of covariance
- 6 Non Parametric Methods
- 7 Factor Analysis (as in Fruchter)

Books recommended

- Basic 1. Walker, Helen, M and Lew Joseph *Statistical Inference*,
2 Garrett, H F *Statistical Methods in Psychology and Education*,

chapters 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 3 Guilford, J P *Fundamental Statistics in Psychology and Education*, chapters 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 4 Guilford J P *Psychometric Methods*, chapter 16, 5 Benjamin Fruchter *Introduction to Factor Analysis*, 6 Holzinger, K J and Harman H H *Factor Analysis*, 7 Siegel *Non-Parametric Statistics*, 8 Keepy *Introduction of Statistical Inference*

Special mention may be made of the Indian Statistical Institute at Calcutta, which specialises in higher statistical studies

We are now giving below the number of enrolments in M A and Ph D in the academic session 1964-65

TABLE I
Enrolments in M A (Previous and Final) and Ph D

	University Departments	Affiliated Colleges	Total
<i>Faculty of Arts</i>			
M.A			
Economic Statistics	15	—	15
Statistics	88	20	103
Ph.D			
Statistics	14	—	14
<i>Faculty of Science</i>			
M.Sc	66	106	812
Ph.D	46	1	47
Total	869	127	996

The above figures are exclusive of those who study statistics in mathematics, commerce, economics, psychology, sociology, social work, etc

TABLE II
Number of Doctoral Theses Accepted During 1960-64

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
Faculty of Arts	1	3	—	1
Faculty of Science	3	4	4	5
Total	4	7	4	6

TABLE III
University wise Analysis of Theses Accepted for Doctorate During 1960-64

	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
Baroda	1	—	—	—
Bombay	1	2	—	—
Calcutta	1	5	—	—
Madras	1	—	2	2
Patna	—	—	—	—
Poona	—	—	1	—
Rajasthan	—	—	1	—
Total	4	7	4	6

CHAPTER XXXVI

DEMOGRAPHY

In the first part of the book Demography has not been dealt with, as a distinct discipline, but it is necessary to devote a separate chapter to the study of demography as a branch of social sciences, firstly because demography is becoming increasingly a basis for other disciplines such as economics, anthropology and secondly because it has been recognised as a distinct discipline by the UNESCO. In 1957, the UNESCO brought out a publication 'The University Teaching of Social Sciences: Demography' in which a survey of teaching of demography in various countries had been made. These covered Australia, France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Latin America, Netherlands, Northern European countries, South East Asia, United Kingdom and Yugoslavia.

Naturally the survey on teaching of demography in India was included in the overall survey of South East Asia. The study of demography—though not so much as an independent discipline but as part of economics and statistics—made considerable progress in India.

Census data and vital statistics are the basic material. A number of surveys have been made both by the government and the study groups under the aegis of Indian universities and they have provided fresh material as base for the study of this discipline. In earlier periods, the census figures giving particulars of literacy, sex, number of children, caste, nature of employment and other particulars were the main sources and the task of compiling the information and drawing up reports, based on the figures arrived at in census enumeration, was assigned to the census commissioners. These reports formed part of studies for students of economics, sociology, anthropology, agriculture, etc. The average expectation of life and other conclusions formed an important part of the study.

Besides the census figures and the reports based thereon, publications such as Linguistic Survey of India were the early contribution to the study of demography. But later, the surveys by the Indian Institute of Hygiene, Calcutta, the Indian Statistical Institute at Calcutta, the national sample surveys conducted by the government and under the aegis of various universities pushed the study of demography to the forefront and the study of this branch of social sciences is now receiving increasing importance which it deserves. The Indian Institute of Public Opinion is one of the most important centres for research based on demography. Its economic report—a quarterly publication—is a study based on demography. Its other publications "Monthly Public Opinion Surveys" "All India Political, Economic and

Social Surveys" are quarterly, in which again demography provides the basic material. The Market Research Corporation of India is another organisation which conducts, jointly with the Indian Institute of Public Opinion, not less than four times a year, all-India surveys on political, social and economic questions.

These particulars have been given to indicate the increasing importance of demography in Indian life—academic studies as well as economic growth has its direct impact on the course of studies prescribed for the various degrees. Yet demography is not a separate subject leading to a degree at B.A. level. Study of the various aspects of population figures in the courses prescribed for economics or sociology or statistics, but demography has so far been not assigned a distinct separate status.

At postgraduate level the study of demography has received better recognition. For example the Bombay University includes demography in the course prescribed for economics.

Such is the case at Baroda and several other universities. Besides the universities, certain other institutions provide scope for studies and research in demography, but the scope of enquiry is restricted to the particular field of interest to the institute. For example, the Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, Calcutta, confines its interest to the mortality and health statistics studies in fertility, parenthood and family planning.

Mention may be made here of the Indian Statistical Institute at Calcutta, where training in this discipline is included. In the three years' course provided for the statisticians, 'population studies and vital statistics' forms one of the specialised courses. The student has to receive three months' training in the specialised course. It is true it is not compulsory but since a student has to offer two out of the ten specialised courses a number of students opt for population studies and vital statistics. For officers' training course also, population studies and vital statistics forms one of the five optional subjects. A student offering this subject has to devote three months to it. The scope of study covers not only sociological problems of fertility etc. but extends to labour, employment, internal migration etc. Although the emphasis here is on economic statistics, demographic studies have their due place.

At the Delhi School of Economics, the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, the Indian Institute of Economic Growth, Delhi, the department of geography, Calcutta University, the statistical departments of the Mysore and Madras universities, the research scholars at the various universities particularly at the Kerala University—the census figures have been analysed and all these are worthy of mention in connection with demographic studies.

The Central Statistical Organisation under the Cabinet secretariat of the Government of India is not a teaching institution and as such outside the scope of our enquiry but since it

brings out in a single volume the latest available data under the important heads of economic and social development mention has to be made of this 'Statistical Abstract' which is an annual publication. It is a compilation and not an independent survey, but provides ready figures on a number of subjects and is a very useful work for scholars as well as the public. Issues such as these provide a stimulus to the study of demography as an important discipline.

How study of demography is included under various disciplines (economic or statistics) is being indicated by reference to a few of the Indian universities.

(i) A student appearing at M A final examination in Statistics at the Agra University has for paper III an option to take any one of the following

- (a) Social Research and Sociometry
- (c) Advanced Sample Surveys
- (c) Psychometry
- (d) Advanced Interence
- (e) Demography
- (f) Advanced Probability
- (g) Biometrics
- (h) Operational Research
- (i) Information Theory
- (j) Non parametric methods
- (k) Econometrics
- (l) Statistical Quality Control

(ii) In Bombay University for M.A in economics, Group II (Advanced Economics) eight subjects (of two papers each) are provided and a student has to offer any two subjects. Group (ii) provides for study of demography. The details of course of studies in demography have been given in Chapter XXXI.

(iii) The Gujarat University prescribes selection of groups for M A as follows

A student offering two groups out of A, C, E and G may select one group for M A —part I—examination and the other for M A —part II—examination

Group A—History

Group C—Economics

Group E—Sociology

Group G—Politics

For those offering group C, two papers (i) theory of value and (ii) theory of money are compulsory. And a candidate has to take any two subjects out of group D which consists of the following

(a) agricultural economics, (b) industrial economics (c) economics—development and fluctuation, (d) economics of public utilities and transport, (e) demography, (f) mathematical economics and econometrics, (g) history of economic thought and classics

The syllabus prescribed by the Bombay University for demography under economics has been given in Chapter XXXI

Social Demography

Teaching of Demography is not only included in economics as for example in Bombay, but in other disciplines also. For example, in Lucknow in M A in sociology Paper XI (group B) is that of social demography. The course of studies prescribed is as follows

Paper XI—Social Demography

The Scope of Social Demography, theories of population growth; biological and social Malthus, Spencer, Dumont, Fetter, problems of population quantitative and qualitative techniques of demographic analysis the concept of optimum population, contemporary demographic situation world population and resource, Indian population problems and policy

Books

Malthus *An Essay on Population*, Carr Saunders *The Population Problem*, Coontz *Population Theories and the Economic Interpretation*, Eversley *Social Theories of Fertility and the Malthusian Debate*, Mukerjee R K *The Political Economy of Population*, Lornimer *Cultural and Human Fertility* Houser and Duncan *The Study of Population*, Barkley *Techniques of Population Analysis*, Davis *The Population of India and Pakistan*, P E P *World Population and Resources*, U N O *Determinants and Consequences of Population Trend*, Gyan Chandra *Some Aspects of the Population Problem of India*

The Institute of Economic Growth, primarily a research centre, has been conducting one year certificate course in demography

(d) *One Year Certificate Course in Demography*—With the financial assistance of the Ministry of Health, the Institute is conducting with effect from 1965-66 a Certificate Course in Demography. The Course has been specially designed to meet the requirements of University and College teachers of Economics and Sociology and also Government employees interested in population studies and family planning work. It is proposed to train a number of qualified social scientists so that they may be able to handle demographic data in economic and social analysis and apply successfully demographic variables in policy and planning formulation. Upon the completion of the one year course, the student is examined in written papers as well as in a viva voce test.

SECTION VII : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER XXXVII

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Scope of the Programme

The Institute of Economic Growth has been operating for some years a programme of training in Research Methodology primarily intended for research workers in Economics who have not already taken the Ph D degree. The programme was started with a recognition of the fact that the M A degree of most of our universities does not necessarily qualify and train a person for conducting research work. Through this programme of training in Research Methodology, which has had the support of the Research Programmes Committee of the Planning Commission, it has been possible over the past few years to bring about substantial improvements in the quality as well as the number of successful Ph.D theses in economics in the University of Delhi. The programme originally started with a grant from the Ford Foundation and is now being sponsored and financed by the University Grants Commission.

In the light of experience already gained the working of the training programme has been intensified while enlarging at the same time its scope so as to include prospective research workers serving the Central and the State Governments industrial and other enterprises and research institutions as well as universities. By June 1965, 13 batches of scholars had already been trained and 107 candidates had successfully completed the training. Of these, 6 have obtained their Ph D degrees and another 11 are now working for that degree.

Duration

The duration of the programme has been fixed at 5 months to permit the operation of two courses during each calendar year, the first beginning in January and ending in May and the second beginning in August and ending in December.

Each batch of trainees consists of not more than 20 scholars, the minimum qualifications for admission to the course being a first or a high second class Master's degree in economics or commerce and satisfactory evidence of aptitude for research.

Scholarships, Fee and Accommodation

A few scholarships of Rs 250 per month, based entirely on merits, are given by the Institute for each batch of trainees and

carry with them exemption from fee. The fee for each course of 5 months' duration is Rs. 100 and candidates sponsored by institutions are not exempted from the payment of fee. The UNESCO scholarships are of the value of Rs. 420 per month for 5 months in addition to a travel grant. The air passage for selected scholars is booked by UNESCO, Paris and they send the air-ticket directly to the candidates on receipt of advice from the Institute. Although living accommodation is not guaranteed, the Institute makes a serious effort and has generally succeeded in making accommodation available at one of the Halls of Residence of the University of Delhi.

Training

The main instruments of training in this course are seminars, project work (as distinct from field work) and fairly comprehensive courses of lectures by experts in the fields of economic analysis, mathematical economics, statistics, econometrics, methodological problems of economic planning with special reference to Indian development, sociology for economists, and demographic analysis. Adequate facilities for library work and practical work on the calculating machines etc. are provided. Lectures have an empirical bias and are intended not so much to provide information as to bring to the notice of the trainees techniques of attacking problems in different contexts and those actually used by research workers in specific situations. Lectures are thus geared to the requirements of research workers and concentrate on methodology of research.

Certificate

A continuous evaluation is made of each candidate's progress and certificates are awarded to the successful candidates at the end of the training programme.

Seminars

The seminar is one of the main instruments of training and is based upon a three month project work undertaken by each candidate. Candidates present papers and defend themselves on subjects previously allotted to them. In the preparation of the seminar paper, each trainee receives guidance from a senior member of the staff to whom he is attached during the course.

	<i>Course</i>	<i>No of Sessions</i>
1	<i>Introduction to Mathematical Economics*</i>	32
2	<i>Statistics*</i>	20
3	<i>Econometrics*</i>	20
4	<i>Economic Analysis</i>	

*Candidate who are already trained in these fields are given an alternative course in *Quantitative Economics*.

(a) Macro-Economics (including Social Accounts)	9
(b) Micro-Economics	4
(c) Growth Models	11
5. <i>Methodological Problems of Economic Planning</i> (with special reference to Indian Development)	24
6. <i>Sociology for Economists</i>	20
7. <i>Demographic Analysis</i>	6
8. <i>Bibliographical Sources</i>	—
9. <i>Seminars</i>	20
10. <i>Machine work</i>	48

We are now giving details of each course

Course 1—Introduction to Mathematical Methods in Economics

The basic emphasis is on Mathematics and the methods are illustrated through their simple applications in Economics. The discussion on the following topics is conducted without formal proofs

1. *Algebra*
Numbers and Variables, Theory of Indices and Logarithms, Linear and Quadratic Equations, Linear Simultaneous Equations, Summations of Simple Series, Inequalities, Ratios and Proportions
2. *Trigonometry and Analytical Geometry*
Measurement of Angles, Distance between two points in two dimensional space, Equation of a Straight Line, Elementary Ideas of Parabola, Hyperbola and Circle
3. *Exponential and Logarithmic Functions*
4. *Elements of Matrices and Determinants*
5. *Differential Calculus*
 - (a) Limits and Continuity of a Function, Derivatives, Criteria for Maxima and Minima
 - (b) Function of two or more Variables, Partial Derivatives, Differentials and Differentiation, Problems of Maxima and Minima
6. *Integration of Simple Functions and the Definite Integral*
7. *Differential and Difference Equations—First and Second Order*

Course 2—Statistics

Discussion on the following topics are conducted without formal proofs

- 1 General Nature of Statistical Methods
- 2 Descriptive Statistics Measures of Central Tendency, Dispersion and other related Measures
- 3 Elementary Theory of Probability.
- 4 Theoretical Distribution Normal, Binomial and Poisson Distributions
- 5 Sampling and Sampling Distributions An Elementary Discussion of Sampling Designs and Sampling Distributions of Certain Statistics.
- 6 Problem of Estimations Point and Interval Estimates
- 7 Tests of Hypothesis
- 8 Correlation and Regression Analysis
- 9 Analysis of Variance
- 10 Time Series Analysis

Course 3—Introduction to Economics

Discussion on the following topics is conducted at an elementary level with the help of Econometric studies in India and abroad

- 1 Demand Analysis
- 2 Production Functions
- 3 Cost Functions
- 4 Supply Functions
- 5 Input-output Analysis
- 6 Macro and Micro Econometric Models
- 7 Linear Programming

Course 4—Economic Analysis

The emphasis in the following is on the exposition of testable hypothesis and theories and on some empirical verifications

(a) Micro Economic Analysis

- 1 The working of the Monetary System
- 2 Theories of Money Interest and Investment and some verifications
- 3 The Determination of Aggregate Demand, Saving Investment and Employment
- 4 Theories of the General Price Level Income Theory of Price Some Verifications
- 5 National Income Accounting

(b) Macro Economic Analysis

- 1 An Analysis of Demand and Supply Theories

(c) Growth Models

- 1 Some models of economic growth —e.g. Harrod-Domar, Neo Classical Keynesian and some models of technical progress
- 2 Economic Growth and Foreign Trade

Course 5—Methodological Problems of Economic Planning
(with special reference to Indian Development)

*(a) Growth Models and Indian Economic Planning**(b) Agricultural Development*

- 1 Land Relations and Structural Changes
- 2 Land Man Ratio and Changes in Size of Holdings
- 3 Farm Size and Efficiency Relations between inputs and outputs
- 4 Agricultural Prices and Price Policy
- 5 Resources for Development Use of Labour
- 6 Resources for Development Land Taxation
- 7 Inter Sectoral Relations

(c) Industrial Development

- 1 The Nature of Industrialization.
- 2 Analysis of Industrial Structure and Structural Change.
- 3 Analysis of the Problems of specific industries

*(d) Foreign Trade and Aid**Course 6—Sociology*

The aim of the short course of twenty lectures in Sociology is to provide students of the Research Methodology Course with some background of the sociological approach, concepts and methods for their work on economic problems. The idea is not so much to load the students with the knowledge of sociology as to promote a sociological orientation. It is evident that the pure sociologist and social anthropologist do not claim to offer to the economist more than an approach, certain concepts and insights. The economist alone can decide how to use them in his theoretical and empirical studies and in this sense become his own sociologist. Keeping these limitations in view, the scheme of lectures provided is an attempt to explore certain fields which may be of interest and relevance for the students of Indian Economics.

The lecture scheme is divided into two parts General Sociology and Economic Sociology

Part I—General Sociology

The purpose of lectures in General Sociology is to familiarise students of economics with the sociological approach of viewing

economic phenomena as social phenomena. Students are introduced to some of the important aspects of the traditional Indian social structure and the processes of social change in India. The process of economic growth itself is viewed in the broad context of the general problem of modernization. From the above standpoint, three problem areas in the study of modernization in India, viz., (i) family in the context of social change (ii) caste, and class and (iii) Sanskritisation and Westernisation, are taken up for discussion.

Part II—Economic Sociology

The main focus in lectures on Economic Sociology is on economic growth, and some important elements of the social structure are analysed from the standpoint of their compatibility or incompatibility with economic growth. The generalised view of social factors in economic growth is followed up by a discussion on one or two specific problem areas in the sociology of economic development.

Micro Socio Anthropological Field Studies

A comparative study of the concepts, methods and techniques of economic surveys and socio anthropological field studies and an appraisal of the micro field studies from the standpoint of their relevance for micro analysis are attempted by introducing students to two or more specific field studies.

Scheme of Lectures

Part I—General Sociology

1. The Sociological Approach and Some Basic Concepts in Sociology.
2. Indian Social Structure
3. Social Change in India with special emphasis on Interplay of Tradition and Modernity
 - (i) Family and Social Change
 - (ii) Caste and class
 - (iii) Sanskritisation and Westernisation.

Part I—Economic Sociology

1. *Introductory—Economic Sociology*
2. *Framework for a Study of Social Factors in Economic Growth.*
 - (i) W. Arthur Lewis—*Theory of Economic Growth*
 - (ii) W. E. Moore—*Social Framework of Economic Development.*
3. *Some Specific Problem areas in the Sociology of Economic Development*

(Any one of the three problems may be taken up for discussion)

- (i) *Social and Cultural Factors in Saving and Capital accumulation—Contrast between Western and Oriental Societies*
- (ii) *Religion, Ideology and Economic Development*
- (iii) *Political Institutions and Economic Development*

4 Field Studies

- A (i) *Corporative Study of Methods and techniques of Economic Surveys and Socio Anthropological Field Studies*
- (ii) *Relevance of Micro field studies for macro-analysis*
- B *Selected Economic Surveys and Socio Anthropological Field Studies* (Any two of the following studies may be taken up)

Selected Field Studies

- (i) F G Bailey—*Caste and Economic Frontier*
- (ii) Scarlet Epstein—*Economic Development and Social Change in South India*
- (iii) G C Mandal and Sunil Sen Gupta—*Resurvey of Village Kashipur*
- (iv) Richard D Lambart—*Factories, Workers and Social Change*
- (v) A Beteile—*A Study of a Multy Caste Village in Madras*

Course 7—Demographic Analysis

- 1 Sources of Demographic Data
- 2 Structure of India's Population
- 3 Future Growth of India's Population
- 4 Fertility Analysis
- 5 Mortality Analysis
- 6 Migration and Urbanization

Agra University

Now some particulars of teaching in Research Methodology at the Agra University are being given

Diploma in Research Methodology

- 1 A Post M A Diploma in Research Methodology is granted to those students who have —
 - (a) Passed the M A examination of this university in any one of the following subjects
sociology, psychology, economics, political science, history and anthropology,
 - (b) attended a regular course of study in the subject in the Institute of Social Sciences for six months
 - (c) and passed the prescribed examination,

Scheme of Examination

There is a Diploma Course in Research Methodology in the Institute of Social Sciences of six months, duration. The examination is conducted by the university in April.

There are three papers of 100 marks each, and Project work of 300 marks. A candidate is declared to have passed the Diploma Course if he has obtained a minimum of 43 marks in each Paper and 50 per cent in the aggregate. A candidate is required to pass separately in the Project work.

Course of Study

Paper I—*Theory and Methods Research*

Logic of Scientific Inquiry, Selection and Formulation of Research Problem, Research Design, Design of Proof, Testing the Hypothesis, Problems of Research Design, Use of Library, Location of Problems, Nature of Evidence

Paper II—*Research Techniques*

Problems of Measurements, Data Collection, Observation Method, Questionnaire Interview, Projective Techniques, Content Analysis, Panel Study, Community Surveys, Sampling Techniques, Case Study

Paper III—*Sampling and Elementary Statistics*

Sample Design, Scaling Concepts, Probability and Sampling, Social Distance, Sociometric and Rating Scales, Tabulating Statistical Data, Graphic Presentation, Averages, Coefficient of Correlation, Coding and Processing of Data

Paper IV—*Project*

Every candidate is required to undertake a Project work and submit a report based on field work of not more than 70 pages. The report is examined by a Board of two examiners, which consists of an external examiner and the Head of the Department, and the maximum marks for the report are 200. The Board jointly awards marks.

The above course would give a fairly good idea of teaching in Research Methodology.

During the academic session 1964-65 the all India figure of students in Research Methodology was 27.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

RECOMMENDATIONS

We have in Part II of this volume made an attempt to provide as much information as possible regarding the teaching of social sciences in India. We feel, readers will not be able to lay their hands on any other book—giving such detailed information in regard to facts and figures. Much of the data for this book was collected early in the beginning of 1967. We have, therefore, given a list of 68 universities only, in chapter X. Since then there have been two additions.

- (i) The Berhampur University at Berhampur
- (ii) The Sambalpur University at Sambalpur.

There has also been one addition to the number of institutions deemed to be universities under the U G C Act. This is the Indian School of Mines at Dhanbad.

We have while discussing the various aspects of teaching pin pointed attention at particular problems, but we are afraid they may be lost sight of in a big volume and we therefore, reiterate succinctly our recommendations in this concluding chapter.

(i) The universities should not be spoon fed but must have autonomy and to the largest extent, flexibility and independence to shape the education on the lines they deem best. The educationists should be allowed the fullest freedom to shape the future generations of citizens—including politicians instead of the politicians laying the rules for university education and injecting a spirit of partiality and prejudice. In *Humanism and Education in East and West* Dr S Radha Krishnan states 'We must turn for guidance not to those who are lost in the exigencies of the passing hour but to men of letters and men of science, poets and artists, discoverers and inventors'.

The universities should not be hand-muds of politics. In his memorandum to the Education Commission (1964-66) the hon'ble Shri Morarji Desai stated 'In the field of university education maximum freedom and autonomy should be allowed to the universities and the government should not interfere in their normal working. Each university should be encouraged in maintaining its distinct character and its past traditions. There should be diversity even in the composition of university bodies. The contents of the university courses need radical change and unless they are related to some kind of practical work by the students, we will not be able to achieve much'.

(ii) Swami Vivekanand observed "To solve any problem of Indian education, it is essential that there should first be experience of the humbler routine of teaching, and for this the supreme and essential qualification is to have looked at world, even if only for a moment, through the eyes of the taught. Every canon of educational science, proclaims the fact."

The posts of vice chancellors should not be provided as a favour or reward to the humtout politicians or superannuated civil servants. Fused hulhs are neither useful nor ornamental. It is a wrong policy to think that only a Governor or the President of India should be the chancellor of a university. The posts of chancellors and vice chancellors must be reserved only for educationists of repute.

(iii) Students studying social science disciplines should be provided as fair chances of earning well in life, as students of technology or those opting for engineering or medical careers. As observed by Prof. D. R. Gadgil in his evidence before the Education Commission (1964-66) 'complaints about quality could arise from more special reasons. For example, during the last fifteen years the quality of students offering economics at the post graduate level has distinctly deteriorated in Poona. This is entirely due to the strong trend, which set in many years ago, for almost all those who did well at S.L.C. to opt for science and to think of an engineering or medical career. The rigid separation of faculties in our universities effectively prevents any recovery for other subjects from among those who choose science at their entrance into college.'

(iv) It is the duty of the State—the Union Government and the States—to meet the demands of education and we should find out money even at the cost of other projects. There is much criminal waste in practically every department of the government. We should free ourselves from fads and retrace our steps—so that we may not squander money on unprofitable misadventures. We can divert funds to education only when we feel the priority and not when our sympathies are platform oriented and only lip deep.

(v) As stated by the Chairman of the U.G.C. at the Vice Chancellors' Conference on 11th September 1967, 'the number who find their way into higher education is very small—about three out of hundred in the relevant age group (the proportion of girls is about a fifth of the total enrolment) and if we include what would internationally be regarded as university-level of work, then the enrolment in higher education will be about 0.5 per hundred of the age group, *one of the lowest in the world*. The total enrolment in higher education is increasing at a growth rate (compound) as high as eleven per cent per year. Most of

the increase is in arts* subjects and in institutions of rather indifferent quality—this cuts down the immediate cost of expansion *but in the long run it may cost the nation dearly*".

We can even with the present staff, admit more students. The pupil to teacher ratio in the universities and colleges in India is about 17. The corresponding figure (for 1960) for U.K. is 8, for France 30, Germany (F.R.) 35, Sweden 12, U.S.A. 13 and U.S.S.R. 12. If France and Germany can teach well, with 30 and 35 students per teacher why should we not follow their example? Our efforts should be to cater to the intellectual needs of the greatest number. Herbert Spencer has stated "In what way to treat the body, in what way to manage our affairs, in what way to bring up a family, in what way to utilise those sources of happiness, which nature supplies, how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage, how to live completely? And this being the great thing indeed for us to learn, is by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education had to discharge." By denying admission to millions of students who desire entry into the college portals we are hampering the preparation "for complete living, which is the function, which education has to discharge."

(vi) Pupils should be taught—in languages which are convenient to them. If we want India or any country for the matter of that, to derive wide-spread benefit, the flood gates of education, should be opened wide on to the aspirants. Transmission through long and narrow pipe lines of a foreign medium can not irrigate the arid expanses. It is a device to keep the masses in eternal intellectual slavery. *We have 38 crore illiterate people in India.* In the words of Rabindra Nath Tagore "It will never do for the Orient to trail behind the West like an over grown appendix, vainly trying to lash the sky in defiance of the divine. For humanity this will not only be a useless excess but a disappointment and a deception. For, if the East ever tries to duplicate Western life, the duplicate is bound to be a forgery."

(vii) The examination system needs immediate and radical reforms. Commissions after Commissions have loudly stressed the point, but these recommendations are covered under piles of dirt in our old records or have been consigned to the dust bins.

(viii) The love of display, as much rules the university Boards of Studies—as the lesser men. The syllabi providing admirable window dressings to impress outsiders, must be replaced by a realistic approach and practical outlook. We have

*All the social science disciplines are taught in the faculty of arts, except in universities having separate faculty of social science.

in some chapters given long lists of books recommended for particular disciplines. These trappings however gilded should not in most cases be deemed to indicate that the students assiduously apply themselves to the extensive readings. Nor is it possible for a student to do justice to them. The pedantic tendency to prescribe outmoded and heavy courses must be replaced by prescribing only to that extent as may be mastered by the pupils.

(ix) Groups of universities would do well to pool their resources—intellectual and financial and get prepared books to cover the syllabi.

We could establish Hindustan Steel Ltd., with an annual turn over of Rs. 205 crore, we have constructed Bhakra Nangal, and other gigantic dams, our efforts for harnessing the river-waters, for hydro-electric energy for manufacturing automobiles and aircrafts and for utilising the atomic power for peaceful purposes are going ahead, our exports in 1965 amounted to Rs. 818 crore and we are spending hundreds of crores on trade, commerce and industry—in our private and public sectors, but our courses of study—even in commerce, business management or sociology are loaded with foreign publications. We have been able to harness water and power and to produce finished steel and copper out of the deep bowels of the earth, but have not been able to produce books for our students. This is a challenge to our national pride, to our professors, authors and publishers. We have in the list of books prescribed given at places not only the names of the authors but publishers also to focus attention on our intellectual poverty in not having been able to produce course books even during twenty years of independence. This is not a plea for intellectual parochialism or to insulate or isolate ourselves from foreign literature or to limit our intellectual horizon by confining ourselves only to books written by Indians or published in India, but a plea for national self sufficiency in the matter of production of standard works. About 200 books dealing with topics prescribed for B.A. and M.A. classes—in each discipline of the social science would make us independent and self sufficient for the purpose of teaching. Over and above these the students and scholars in colleges and outside may read as much literature as they like—wider the fields of intellectual excursions better and more elevating it is for the mind. But for prescribing as course of studies—we should have books rich in material but not unduly bulky. And as much should be prescribed as can be read well and assimilated by the students. Why prescribe a large number of books—which the majority of the students can neither acquire by purchase nor on loan from the libraries. In the words of Snuth 'Much reading is like much eating—wholly useless without digestion'.

(x) The teachers' salaries must be raised, so that the really talented and intellectual people enter the teaching line. Teachership in colleges should not go to the left overs from entry into government or lucrative private services.

(xi) The causes of student unrest must be tackled as a serious problem and matters should not be left to drift in the mistaken belief that they would automatically be solved or settle down.

In the words of the hon'ble Dr. V K R V Rao "If our education is deficient in quality, partly it is the fault of the educational system, partly it is the fault of the educational administration, and partly it is the fault of the teachers. I think, it is partly the fault of the parents. So all the four parties have their share of responsibility."

The comments and suggestions made by us have been made in the helpful spirit of introspective self analysis. We hope determined and well directed effort by a people who have throughout ages given ample evidence of their resources of character and initiative must bring its reward. India is a great country with a rich and proud heritage. We have the spirit and the calibre to lead us on to world championship in the realm of intellectual learning. It is only a question of properly harnessing our resources. Let us do it.

INDISPENSABLE BOOKS

Compulsory Education in India and Progress During Fifteen Years, (1951-1966) by K G Saiyadain, J P Naik, S Abid Husain, and G K Ojha. A most authoritative study of the history and progress of Compulsory Education in India. Discusses the merits and demerits of compulsion, giving detailed information for each State and the Union Territory, and legislative provisions in different States against the background of five year Plans, financial provisions and limitations. With a Foreword by Dr (Mrs.) T S Soundram Ramachandran, Deputy Minister for Education, Govt of India. Hailed as a significant contribution to the subject by Dr A V Rao, Vice Chancellor of Lucknow University, Prof V K R V Rao, Retired Vice Chancellor, Delhi University, Shri R K Nehru, Vice Chancellor of Allahabad University, Pandit K A S Iyer, Retired Vice Chancellor of Lucknow University, and many other prominent educationists and the press.

Rs 25 00

Teaching of Mathematics in the New Education, by N Kuppuswami Aiyangar, M A, L T. With an Appendix on Mathematics in the Gandhi Scheme of Education. Recommended for students and teachers of Mathematics throughout India. *4th Revised Enlarged edition*.

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